Emotional intelligence as an intervention against bullying in primary schools in Gauteng: Efficacy of an anti-bullying intervention programme

by

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"Bullies do what they do for self-protection. This is often because manipulation (i.e. humiliation, intimidation, and isolation) are the only way they know how to cope with their lack of self-worth. Having power over someone has in some way served them temporarily in the past. However, having power over another, taking someone's power or giving power away is always temporary because it is an illusion. This is why bullies continue doing what they do over and over again. -It's a dysfunctional addiction that society is now recognizing and insisting that it is no longer acceptable."

Susan Abrams Milligan (2012)

Being a bully is a scream of brokenness, a sign that your needs for love, attention, worth and appreciation is not being met.

DECLARATION

I, Laurika Lubbe, declare that

EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS AN INTERVENTION AGAINST BULLYING IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN GAUTENG: EFFICACY OF AN ANTI-BULLYING INTERVENTION PROGRAMME

is my own work. I have acknowledged content and concepts of various authors and provided an alphabetised reference list as required by the APA method of referencing.

Laurika Lubbe:  Date: 2019.12.11

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my Father and Mother who always showered me with lots of love, support and encouragement throughout the completion of my studies.

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I would like to thank the following individuals who have been instrumental in the completion of this thesis:

- Most importantly I would like to thank my Heavenly Father who gave me strength and courage to complete it. My favourite verse, from the Holy Bible, which helped me through the completion of this thesis: *"I can do all things through Christ who strengthens me."* Philippians 4:13.
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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to assess the emotional intelligence of bullies between the ages of 7 and 13 years and to use the information gathered to develop an Emotional Intelligence Skills Enhancement Programme that can serve as an anti-bullying intervention programme. The impact of the programme was evaluated to determine whether it assisted in decreasing bullying behaviour in the primary school context in South Africa.

The study was conducted in a primary school in the Benoni area in Gauteng (South Africa). The study was divided into three phases. The aim of the pilot study was to test the research techniques to determine whether they would be suitable for use in South Africa specifically. The respondents in the pilot study were selected from five primary schools in Gauteng, South Africa. A total of 100 (n=100) learners between the ages of 7 and 13 years were included in the pilot study phase of this study to test whether the Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth Version (BarOn EQ-i:YV) would be appropriate for use in a South African context. A total of 175 (n=175) parents were included in the pilot study to test the reliability of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults and the appropriateness of the use of the Parent–Child Relationship Inventory (PCRI) and the Parenting Styles Questionnaire (PSQ). The reliability coefficients were calculated using Cronbach's alpha. The results indicated that the Self-developed Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults was sufficiently reliable given the design and purpose of the study, and that the other measuring instruments were appropriate for use in the South African context.

The aim of Phase 1 of this quantitative study was to determine and present the relationship between the independent variables (emotional intelligence, parent–child relationship and parenting styles) and the dependent variable, bullying. Phase 1 involved 56 (n=56) bullies and 56 (n=56) non-bullies, 36 (n=36) fathers of bullies, 55 (n=55) mothers of bullies, 42 (n=42) fathers of non-bullies and 56 (n=56) mothers of non-bullies. Descriptive statistics were provided on the scales of the BarOn EQ-i:YV, the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults, the PCRI and the PSQ. The bullies and the non-bullies were compared on the BarOn EQ-i:YV by means of independent samples t-tests. It was found that the bullies scored significantly lower on all the scales. The parents of the bullies and the non-bullies were compared on the Self-developed Questionnaire and the PCRI using independent samples t-tests. The results for the parents on the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults showed no significant differences, whereas the parents

of the bullies scored significantly lower on a number of scales of the PCRI. Poor parent–child relationships could, however, not be assumed based on the findings. A chi-square analysis of the results on the PSQ showed a significant interaction between the dominating parenting style of the fathers and bullying behaviour. A preference for an authoritarian parenting style was indicated by the fathers of the bullies.

The aim of Phase 2 of this study was to develop an Emotional Intelligence Skills Enhancement Programme that can serve as an anti-bullying intervention programme to assist in decreasing the occurrence of bullying behaviour in the primary school context. The experimental group consisted of 15 (n=15) bullies and 15 (n=15) non-bullies and the control group consisted of 15 (n=15) bullies and 15 (n=15) non-bullies. Only the participants in the experimental group were exposed to the intervention programme. A mixed multivariate analysis (GLM) was used to explore the interaction between pretest and posttest scores and the experimental and control groups for the total EQ scores and the behavioural ratings given by the teachers. Significant changes were observed in relation to the bullies in the experimental group in the pretest and the posttest of the BarOn EQ-i:YV and the Teacher Rating Scale. These findings provide support for the effectiveness of the programme in the experimental group.

Keywords:
Primary school learners, bullies, non-bullies, bullying, emotional intelligence, Emotional Intelligence Skills Enhancement Programme, intervention

ABSTRAK

Hierdie studie het gepoog om die emosionele intelligensie van boelies/bullebakke tussen die ouderdomme 7 en 13 jaar oud te bepaal. Die bevindings is gebruik om ‘n Emosionele Intelligensie Vaardigheid Verrykingsprogram te ontwikkel wat daarna as ‘n (teen-) anti-boelie ingrypingsprogram geimplimenteer is. Dié program se impak is verder ook ge-evalueer om te bepaal of dit wel ‘n bydrae gemaak het tot vermindering van bullebakgedrag in die primêre skoolkonteks in Suid-Afrika.

Die studie is in ‘n primêre skool in die omstreke van Benoni in Gauteng (Suid-Afrika), uitgevoer en is verdeel in drie fases. Die doel van die loodsstudie was om te toets of die navorsingstegnieke in Suid-Afrika toegepas kan word. Honderd (*n*=100) leerlinge tussen die ouderdom van 7 en 13 jaar oud, is geselekteer as deelnemers uit vyf primêre skole in Gauteng. Hierdie loodsstudie-groep is gebruik om te bepaal of die Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth Version (BarOn EQ-i:YV), in ‘n Suid-Afrikaanse konteks, suksesvol toegepas kan word. ‘n Totaal van 175 ouers (*n*=175) was ook ingesluit in die loodsstudie om die betroubaarheid van die Self-ontwikkelde Emosionele Intelligensie Vraelys vir Volwassenes te toets asook die toepasbaarheid van die gebruik van die Parent-Child Relationship Inventory (PCRI) en die Parenting Style Questionnaire (PSQ). Die betroubaarheidskoeffisiënte is bereken met die Cronbach’s Alpha toets. Bevindings toon dat die Self-ontwikkelde Intelligensie Vraelys vir Volwassenes voldoende betroubaar is wat die ontwerp en doel van die studie betref. Ook die ander meetinstrumente kan in ‘n Suid-Afrikaanse konteks suksesvol toegepas word.

Die doel van Fase 1 (kwantitatiewe studie), was om die verhouding tussen die onafhanklike veranderlikes (emosionele intelligensie, ouer-kind verhouding en ouer-opvoedingstyle) en die afhanklike veranderlike naamlik bullebakgedrag, te bepaal. Fase 1 het 56 (*n*=56) boelies en 56 (*n*=56) nie-boelies, 36 (*n*=36) vaders van boelies, 55 (*n*=55) moeders van boelies, 42 (*n*=42) vaders van nie-boelies en 56 (*n*=56) moeders van nie-boelies, ingesluit. Beskrywende statistiek is verskaf op die volgende skale: BarOn EQ-i:YV, Self-ontwikkelde Intelligensie Vraelys vir Volwassenes, PCRI en die PSQ. Die boelies en nie-boelies is deur middel van onafhanklike steekproef t-toetse op die BarOn EQ-i:YV skaal met mekaar vergelyk en die resultaat het getoon dat die boelies beduidend laer punte op alle skale behaal het. Ouers van die boelies en nie-boelies is ook met mekaar vergelyk deur middel van die Self-ontwikkelde Intelligensie Vraelys vir Volwassenes en die PCRI en die PSQ. Resultate van eersgenoemde metode het geen beduidende verskille getoon nie terwyl die ouers van boelies

met die PCRI ‘n beduidend laer syfer op verskeie skale behaal het. Swak ouer-kind verhouding kan dus nie, op grond van die bevindings, net aanvaar word nie. ‘n Chi-kwadraat analise van die resultate op die PSQ het ‘n beduidende interaksie getoon tussen die dominerende ouer-opvoedingstyl van die vaders, en bullebak(boelie) gedrag. ‘n voorkeur vir Outoritêre Ouerskap was deur vaders van die boelies aangedui.

Die doel van Fase 2 in hierdie studie was om die Emosionele Intelligensie Vaardigheid Verrykingsinventaris Program te ontwikkel om sodoende as ’n teen-boelie intervensie/ingrypingsprogram te dien wat sal bydra om die voorkoms van bullebakgedrag in die primêre skoolkonteks, te verminder. Die eksperimentele groep het bestaan uit 15 (*n*=15) boelies en 15 (*n*=15) nie-boelies en die kontrole groep ook uit 15 (*n*=15) boelies en 15 (*n*=15) nie-boelies. Slegs die deelnemers aan die eksperimentele groep was blootgestel aan dié ingrypingsprogram. ‘n Gemengde Meerveranderlike Analise, GLM (“General Linear Model”), is gebruik om die interaksie tussen voor- en na-toetstellings te bepaal, vir die eksperimentele en kontrole groepe se Totale EQ (Emosionele Kwosiënt) en die gedragsgraderings deur onderwysers. Beduidende verskille was waargeneem vir boelies in die eksperimentele groep in die voor- en na-toets van die BarOn EQ-i:YV en die Onderwysgraderingsskaal. Hierdie bevindings verskaf ondersteuning vir die doeltreffendheid van die program in die eksperimentele groep.

Kernwoorde:
Laerskool/primêre skool leerlinge, boelies, nie-boelies, boelie(bullebak) gedrag, Emosionele Intelligensie, Emosionele Intelligensie Vaardigheid Verrykingsprogram, ingryping/voorkoming.

KAKARETSO YA DIPATLISISO

Sepheo sa phuputso ena e ne e le ho hlahloba bohlale ba maikutlo ba bo-mmampodi ba dilemo di dipakeng tsa 7 le 13 le ho sebedisa tlhahisoleseding e bokelletsweng ho ntlafatsa Lenaneo la Ntlafatso ya Bokgoni ba Bohlale ba Maikutlo le ka sebetsang e le lenaneo la kenang dipakeng kgahlanong le bompodi. Tshusumetso ya lenaneo e ile ya hlahlojwa ho sheba hore na le thusitse ho fokotsa boitshwaro ba bompodi maemong a dikolo tsa mathomo Afrika Borwa.

Phuputso e entswe dikolong tsa mathomo tikolohong ya Benoni Gauteng (Afrika Borwa).Phuputso e ne e arotswe ka mekgahlelo e meraro. Sepheo sa phuputso ena e nyane e ne e le ho etsa teko ya mekgwa ya dipatlisiso ho bona hore na e ka sebediswa hantle Afrika Borwa ka ho kgetholoha. Batho ba arabang dipotso phuputsong ena e nyane ba ne ba kgethilwe ho tswa dikolong tse hlano tsa mathomo Gauteng, Afrika Borwa. Kakaretso ya baithuti ba 100 (p=100) ba dilemo di dipakeng tsa 7 le 13 ba ne ba kenyelleditswe mokgahlelong wa phuputso e nyane wa phuputso ena ho etsa teko ya hore na Lethathamo la Maemo a Itseng a Maikutlo: Phetolelo ya Batjha (BarOn EQ-i:YV) le ne le ka loka bakeng sa tshebediso maemong a Afrika Borwa. Kakaretso ya batswadi ba 175 (p=175) e ile ya kenyelletswa phuputsong e nyane ho etsa teko ya ho tshepahala ha Lethathamo la dipotso le Iketseditsweng la Bohlale ba Maikutlo bakeng sa batho ba baholo le ho nepahala ha tshebediso ya Lethathamo la Kamano ya Motswadi le Ngwana (PCRI) le Lethathamo la dipotso la Mekgwa ya Botswadi (PSQ). Ho tshepahala ha boleng ba tekanyo ho ile ha lekanyetswa ho sebediswa alfa ya Cronbach. Diphetho di bontshitse hore Lethathamo la dipotso le Iketseditsweng la Bohlale bakeng sa batho ba baholo le ne le tshepahala ka ho lekana ho latela moralo le sepheo sa phuputso, le hore disebediswa tse ding tsa ho lekanya di ne di loketse ho sebediswa maemong a Afrika Borwa.

Sepheo sa Mokgahlelo wa 1 wa phuputso ya tekanyo e ne e le ho bona le ho hlahisa kamano dipakeng tsa dintho tse feto-fetohang tse ikemetseng (bohlale ba kelelllo, kamano ya motswadi le ngwana le mekgwa ya botswadi) le ntho e feto-fetohang e sa ikemelang, bompodi. Mokgahlelo wa 1 o ne o kenyelleditse bo-mmampodi ba 56 (p =56) le bao e seng bo-mmampodi ba 56 (p=56), bo-ntate ba bo-mmampodi ba 36 (p=36), bo-mme ba 55 ba bo-mmampodi (p=55), bo-ntate ba 42 (p=42) ba bao eseng bo-mmampodi le bo-mme ba 56 (p=56) ba bao eseng bo-mmampodi. Dipalo-palo tse hlalosang di ile tsa fanwa dikaleng tsa BarOn EQ-i:YV, Lethathamo la dipotso le Iketseditsweng la Bohlale ba Maikutlo bakeng sa batho ba baholo, PCRI le PSQ. Bo-mmampodi le bao eseng bo-mmampodi ba ile ba bapiswa ho BarOn EQ-i:YV ka mekgwa ya diteko tsa t tsa disampole tse ikemetseng. Ho ile ha fumaneha hore

bo-mmampodi ba ile ba fumana dintlha tse tlase dikaleng tsohle. Batswadi ba bo-mmampodi le bao eseng bo-mmampodi ba ile ba bapiswa Lethathamong la dipotso le Iketseditsweng le PCRI ho sebediswa diteko tsa t tsa disampole tse ikemetseng. Diphetho tsa batswadi Lethathamong la dipotso le Iketseditsweng la Bohlale ba Maikutlo bakeng sa Batho ba baholo ha dia bontsha diphapang tse kgolo, ha batswadi ba bo-mmampodi ba fumane dintlha tse bonahalang di le tlase dikaleng tse batlang di le ngata tsa PCRI. Leha ho le jwalo, dikamano tse seng hantle tsa motswadi le ngwana di ne di ke ke tsa nahanwa ho latela diphumano. Manollo ya sekwere sa chi ya diphumano ho PSQ e bontshitse tshebedisano e bonahalang dipakeng tsa mokgwa o atileng wa botswadi ba bo-ntate le boitshwaro ba bompodi. Kgetho ya mokgwa wa botswadi wa bohatelli o ile wa bontshwa ho bo-ntate ba bo-mmampodi.

Sepheo sa Mokgahlelo wa 2 wa phuputso e ne e le ho ntlafatsa Lenaneo la Ntlafatso ya Bokgoni ba Bohlale ba Maikutlo le ka sebetsang e le lenaneo la kenang dipakeng kgahlanong le phokotso ya boitshwaro ba bompodi maemong a dikolo tsa mathomo. Sehlopha sa diteko se ne se e na le bo-mmampodi ba 15 (p=15) le bao seng bo-mmampodi ba 15 (p=15) mme sehlopha sa taolo se ne se e na le bo-mmampodi ba 15 (p=15) le bao seng bo-mmampodi ba 15 (p=15). Ke feela bankakarolo ba sehlopheng sa diteko ba ileng ba behwa lenaneong la ho kena dipakeng. Manollo ya dipalo tse ngata tse tswakilweng (GLM) e ile ya sebediswa ho lekola tshebedisano dipakeng tsa dintlha tse fumanweng pele ho teko le kamora teko le dihlopha tsa diteko le tsa taolo bakeng sa kakaretso ya dintlha tse fumanweng tsa EQ le ditekanyetso tsa boitshwaro tse fanweng ke matitjhere. Diphetoho tse bonahalang di ile tsa bonwa mabapi le bo-mmampodi ba sehlopheng sa diteko pele ho teko le kamora teko ya BarOn EQ-i:YV le Sekala ka Tekanyetso sa Titjhere. Diphumano tsena di fana ka tshehetso bakeng sa tshebetso ya lenaneo sehlopheng sa diteko.

Mantswe a tobileng:
Baithuti ba sekolo sa mathomo, bo-mmampodi, bao eseng bo-mmampodi, bompodi, bohlale ba maikutlo, Lenaneo la Ntlafatso ya Bokgoni ba Bohlale ba Maikutlo, ho kena dipakeng

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADD	:	Attention Deficit Disorder
ADHD	:	Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
APA	:	American Psychological Association
BarOn EQ-i:YV	:	BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth Version
CD	:	Conduct Disorder
EI	:	Emotional Intelligence
EQ	:	Emotional Intelligence
GDE	:	Gauteng Department of Education
HPCSA	:	Health Professions Council of South Africa
IQ	:	Intelligence
NSVS	:	National Schools Violence Study
OBPP	:	Olweus Bullying Prevention Programme
ODD	:	Oppositional Defiant Disorder
PCRI	:	Parent-Child Relationship Inventory
PSQ	:	Parenting Style Questionnaire
SA	:	South Africa
SASA	:	South African Schools Act 84 of 1996
SFBT	:	Solution Focused Brief Therapy
SGB	:	School Governing Body
WHO	:	World Health Organisation
USA	:	United States of America

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CHAPTER 1

CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND

"People who love themselves do not hurt other people. The more we hate ourselves, the more we want others to suffer" (Daniel Pearce, n.d.).

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The rationale, research problem, the aim, the objectives as well as the theoretical and practical relevance of the study are discussed in this chapter.

Bullying, including school bullying, has become a worldwide problem and any form of bullying can have negative and long-term effects on children's mental health, overall development, functioning and academic performance. If bullying is not stopped at a young age, it can continue into adulthood that leads to more serious problems such as mental illness and even crime (Ali-Ali & Khulood, 2018; Childline South Africa, 2019; Hurley, 2012). Research on bullying is not new, and it has been carried out in countries such as the United States of America (USA), Britain, Italy and South Africa (SA). In previous research studies conducted on bullying, researchers, and other professionals were concerned about the victims of bullying and equipping them with skills to protect themselves against bullies. Govender (2013) in particular asserted that the problem of bullying behaviour is widespread, and most learners will experience bullying whether as a victim or a perpetrator at some point in their school career. In South Africa, school bullying has gained media coverage in the form of newspaper reports, on television and in video clips posted on social media (Childline South Africa, 2019; Darney, Howcraft, & Stroud, 2013; De Wet, 2009; Dogini, 2014; Laas & Boezaart, 2014).

School bullying has resulted in several deaths of learners and teachers (Donegan, 2009; Hertz, 2016; Sullivan, 2009). As a result of bullying, Professor Dan Olweus (1978) of the First University of Bergen started his research on school bullying after the death of three schoolboys in. Almost twenty years later, Sullivan (2009) found that bullying was a significant factor in the months leading up to these boys committing suicide due to acts of bullying.

South Africa is considered one of the countries with the most violent societies (De Wet, 2009; Fast & Marchetti-Mercer, 2009). News reports on schools seldom include articles on the achievement of learners, but are rather about the death of learners due to bullying. Proof of this is reflected in the violent and fatal attack of a 13-year-old schoolboy from Gauteng, South Africa's smallest yet most densely populated province. The boy's family stated that he was

injured while trying to protect his little brother from being bullied. The boy died as a result of the injuries he sustained while fighting the bullies off (Pijoos, 2017). School bullying may also prevent learners from enjoying a safe and secure educational environment and this, in turn, could hamper effective learning (Masitsa, 2011; Menesini & Salmivalli, 2017; Rossouw & Stewart, 2008).

Universally, people agree that any form of bullying is prohibited in schools and therefore something should be done to prevent it from taking place (Sullivan, 2009). According to Sansone and Sansone (2008), bullying is a social phenomenon that transcends gender, age and culture. They assert that behaviour is considered bullying when the learner committing the act enjoys dominating their victim leaving them feeling oppressed (Sansone & Sansone, 2008). A generally accepted definition for bullying describes bullying as a conscious and purposeful aggressive act, either verbally or physically, performed by an individual or a group against another individual (Elinoff, Chafouleas, & Sassu, 2004; Harris & Garth, 2003; Olweus, 1994; Sansone & Sansone, 2008; Sullivan, 2009).

In the field of bullying, various authors such as Neser, Ovens, Van der Merwe, Morodi, Ladikos, and Prinsloo (2004), Koo, (2007), Smokowski, Holland, and Kopasz (2005), as well as Olweus (1994) have found that there are different types of bullying and expressed their thoughts on the consequences of failure to prevent it from occurring. The most common types of bullying include physical, verbal, peer victimisation, relational bullying, emotional bullying, sexual bullying and cyberbullying, which can have long-term effects if not prevented (Olweus, 1994).

Naturally humans are deeply empathetic towards each other. However, often adults and children do not act on this instinctive ability. The reason for children becoming bullies can be ascribed to several different factors (Rigby, 1996) of which there are many causes. However, the individual child who bullies others must be viewed within the context of intrapersonal and interpersonal factors which may play a role in a child becoming a bully (Olweus, 1994; Rigby, 1996; Rivers, 2014).

Sometimes it is difficult for children or adults to admit that they are victims of bullying. It is often even more difficult for a child or adult to admit that they are the perpetrators (Ainsworth, 2017). For example, Eve Ainsworth was badly bullied at school. However, as an adult she felt compelled to write about the “forgotten victims of bullying”, namely the bully. From her experience as a victim of bullying, she also learned that life was not easier for the

bully. For her novel *Seven Days*, Ainsworth wanted to determine what the effect of bullying might have been on the bully, as she found that this area had not been explored as much as the lives and effects of bullying on the victims (Ainsworth, 2017).

In her novel, Ainsworth (2017) used the example of a student who was identified as a bully. The student found it difficult to open up and when she did, the student did not talk about the bullying behaviour she was accused of at school, she spoke about her ill mother, absent father and violent brother. Ainsworth found that the student bottled up her feelings and one day she exploded like a "Coke can that was shaken too many times." Having no efficient coping skills to deal with the problems in her own life, she chose to target someone else as this was a good distraction technique for her. Ainsworth (2017) found that in bullying cases there are no clear-cut answers. Bullies do not bully other learners because they are unfeeling human beings. According to Ainsworth (2017), the stigma that the word "bully" still carries needs to be broken down and it should be addressed openly why one learner would target another.

Bullying is never pleasant, and it always remains harmful and extremely traumatic to both the victim and the perpetrator. However, very often, there is a forgotten victim of bullying, namely the bully.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE FOR THIS RESEARCH STUDY

As mentioned in the previous section, school bullying is a worldwide phenomenon and is a problem that is affecting the lives of everyone involved in the school context (Al-Ali & Shattnawi, 2018; Laas, 2014; Rigby, 1996).

Ainsworth (2017) argued that the environment of a bully is characterised by a cycle where the learners attitude reinforces relationships, characterised by isolation, and this attitude leads to negative consequences such as labelling and punishment. It is therefore important to consider that a bully's attitude towards other learners might be a result of insufficient development in terms of intrapersonal and interpersonal skills that allow a child to respond effectively towards their environment.

As a counselling psychologist, working in a school context as a Grade 2 teacher, I am faced daily with children who either are being bullied or accused of bullying others. From my interaction with the children, it appears that they are not aware of their own feelings and emotions and the effect their behaviour has on others. Further, it appears that learners find it difficult to deal with the emotions of their peers as a result of possibly not being emotionally intelligent themselves.

I strongly believe that prevention is better than cure. I therefore decided to focus on primary school learners as it is clear from previous research studies conducted on bullying that it has short and long-term effects, and if bullies are not stopped at a young age, they are at risk for continuing their behaviour in high school and into adulthood. They are thus at risk of developing numerous psychiatric issues, such as anti-social personality disorder (lack of empathy, lying and criminal behaviour), depression, suicidal thinking or behaviour and anxiety (Blumen, 2013).

It is further the researchers' view that people need to be made aware that bullying in schools is on the increase throughout the world and that this is a sensitive topic to many people. However, if government, teachers, parents and other professionals do not want to realise the seriousness of the problem, and do not want to attack the problem due to the sensitivity of the topic, ways to curb bullying will not be found. The government, Department of Education, teachers, parents, professionals, learners and society as a whole need to know and understand that, in order to reduce bullying, more focus should be placed on the bullies, and equipping them with skills that will assist in reducing their bullying behaviour (Kõiv, 2012; Rivers, 2014).

1.2.1 Initial awareness

In 2014, during my psychology internship year at a local children's village in South Africa, I dealt with different children, who have come from dysfunctional and abusive homes. I realised that some of the children adapted easily to the orphanage environment, conforming to rules, enjoying the love and attention they received, and slowly working through the healing process with their therapists.

The children who stood out most were those who were still on the defensive or in denial mode. Those children, who could not express their feelings, relax or allow the adults to protect them, love and take care of them; who could not feel their own anger, understand their emotions. Those children who were pushed away from the group as no one wanted to play with them because they are mean and ungrateful; those children were called bullies.

The "bullies" could hardly ever participate in any fun activities as they were punished on a daily basis for fighting, stealing, not conforming to the rules and acting in a disrespectful manner towards members of the staff. In an attempt to prevent these children from being provoked, other children on the premises were instructed to avoid contact with these children. This seemed very sad and unfair, as many of these children came from abusive backgrounds where they did not receive love and guidance from their primary caregivers. For a person who

does not have general background information regarding the structure of the village, it may appear that the vicious circle of rejection and "fighting for survival" was repeating itself.

The therapy sessions were experienced as challenging, but very interesting. Learning how to think on your feet, out of the box and finding a unique and creative approach to fit the needs of each of your clients were not an easy task, but it surely helped me to grow and to realise the important role of a therapist in the life of a child.

While observing the children during free play, I realised that, as a result of not being allowed to take part in the activities, the children identified as the "bullies" now became victims of bullying. Unintentionally, the victims who were instructed to avoid contact with the "bullies" to prevent them from being provoked now became the perpetrators who were intentionally pushing the "bullies" away from the group. It was after this observation when I realised that, in order to prevent a snowball effect of bullying, it would be best to find a way to assist the "bullies" and to equip them with skills to help them deal with and manage their emotions and deal with stressful life situations.

The focus of this study is therefore the development of an emotional intelligence skills enhancement programme, to assist children who bully others to recognise, understand, label, express and regulate their own emotions and those of others.

1.2.2 Exploration of the problem and rationale

News headlines suggest that bullying in South African schools continues to be problematic; for example: "Schoolboy sodomised, painted white at hostel" (Sapa, 2015), "Ekurhuleni boy (13) dies after bullying at school" (Pijoos, 2017), "Bullied Kempton Park pupil attempted suicide after video of assault went viral – report" (Grobler, 2019).

When considering all the rights infringed upon when a learner is being bullied by another or even an adult, one of the most important rights transgressed, is the right to be educated in a safe school environment (De Wet, 2007; Laas & Boezaart, 2014; Van der Westhuizen & Maree, 2010). Education plays an important part in the development of a well-balanced learner. The balance of the learner might be disturbed when this right is eliminated (Laas & Boezaart, 2014). Laas (2012, p. 2) provided the following example to illustrate how the balance of a learner can be disturbed when their right to be educated in a safe school environment is interrupted by children who engage in bullying behaviour towards them: "Suppose that a learner is bullied by another who uses physical acts as means of bullying and the physical acts of the bully cause severe injuries which prevents the victim from going to school." According to Laas, the

emotional injuries of the victim can cause him or her to develop *didaskaleinophobia* (fear of going to school) and this may result in the occurrence of imbalance in the child's life (Laas, 2012). Bullying is not only problematic because it prevents learners from enjoying an emotional safe and secure school environment, where valuable learning experiences should take place. It is problematic because it disrupts effective learning, and it may lead to long-term psychosocial, normative and physical effects on the development and well-being of a primary school learner (Pillay, 2007).

Every day, in primary and secondary schools, learners learn valuable skills and lessons from interacting with their teachers and peers (Donegan, 2009). Although school is undeniably beneficial for youth around the world, there are some experiences, such as bullying and violence that may negatively affect children and remain with them for the rest of their lives. Statistics provided by the World Health Organization (WHO) in 2014 show that more than 1.3 million children die each year as a result of violence, which includes bullying (WHO, 2014).

Bullying and other forms of violence in schools is not a new phenomenon, however, it has become a worldwide problem that demands the attention of all stakeholders in the education system. This includes, but is not limited to, the Department of Education, principals, teachers, school governing bodies (SGBs), psychologists, counsellors and mentors. Researchers such as Limber and Nation (1997), Neto (2005), Olweus (1993) and Rigby (2000), in their different fields of studies, have found that bullying behaviour is a regular problem that is present in almost every school around the world, and causes great concern especially for South African schools. Bullying has become so common that parents, professionals and teachers may easily become blinded to the extensive harm bullying causes.

When the term 'bullying' or 'bully' is mentioned, the first thought that generally comes to mind is that of the 'traditional schoolyard bully' who kicks, punches or spreads rumours about physical smaller and weaker learners, including emotionally vulnerable learners. However, in the 1990s cell phones became more prevalent, and with its popularity a new type of bully developed, namely the cyber bully (Osborne, 2014). Bullying is therefore no longer limited to person-to-person encounters. Cyberbullying has evolved, with learners now using other forms of technological devices, such as the Internet, SMSs, Whatsapp, iPads, and social media such as blogs, Facebook and email to harass and bully other learners. Both local and internationally cyberbullying has had devastating results for some perpetrators and victims (Gilbert, 2015; Johannes, 2018; Monks & Rix, 2016; Monks, Robinson, & Worlidge, 2012, Rivers, 2014; Smit, 2015). In South Africa, according to the researcher, the extent of cyberbullying is understated,

yet, statistics by Gilbert (2015) show that the problem is growing, as one in five South African adolescents reported that they have experienced cyberbullying.

Being informed that your child is a victim of bullying at school is every parent's worst nightmare. Where South African parents previously only read about bullying occurring internationally, several researchers have shown that bullying behaviour is becoming more frequent in the lives of South African primary and secondary school learners (Adam, 2007; Loewenstein, 2014; Marais & Meier, 2010; Smit, 2003; Vorster, 2002).

Results in a study by Adam (2007) did show that bullying behaviour is on the rise in primary schools in South Africa. She explained that South Africans live in a violent society, where learners learn that violence is acceptable and that there are learners who use bullying to express strong emotions, deal with low self-esteem and exercise authority over weaker peers. Furthermore, she stated that being viewed as emotionally tough is depicted as being "cool", and learners strive to be portrayed that way (Adam, 2007). Pillay (2007) found that bullying can have physical, psychosocial and normative effects on the development and overall well-being of primary school learners. She further points out that learners who are being bullied have trouble in establishing confidence, and forming healthy friendships. Dombeck (2007) came to a significant conclusion that bullying not only effects the victims of bullies, but the learners themselves who bully others are also at risk emotionally in the short and long term.

The research conducted by Blumen (2013) concludes that, if bullies are not stopped, they are at risk for continuing their behaviour when they get older, and are then at further risk for developing numerous psychiatric issues, such as anti-social personality disorder with a lack of empathy, lying and criminal behaviour, depression, suicidal ideation and anxiety. Bullying behaviour may also interfere with a learner's success in school and the ability to form healthy relationships (Blumen, 2013; Rivers, 2014).

Rivers (2014) found several other relevant aspects with reference to the reasons for learners bullying other learners. Some learners bully other learners because they are not aware of their own emotions and they lacked an understanding of them. This makes it difficult for learners to recognise emotions in themselves and their peers. In international context, Rivers (2014), co-founder of the Yale Centre for Emotional Intelligence and Research Scientist in Psychology, found that emotional intelligence training in schools increases emotional awareness and understanding in learners that, in turn, leads to a decrease in the prevalence of bullying. Positive benefits of acquiring emotional intelligence equipped bullies with effective strategies for managing their feelings, expressing negative feelings in a socially acceptable way

and behaving compassionately. Emotional intelligence can thus protect learners from developing serious mental illnesses such as depression, aggression and anxiety. Schools that advanced the emotional intelligence skills of their learners as part of their curriculum structure and content reported an increase in academic success, better teacher-learner relationships and a decrease in socially unacceptable behaviour including bullying (Rivers, 2014).

Studies examining the relationship between bullying and emotional intelligence are scarce (Garaigordobil & Pena-Sarrionandia, 2015). Furthermore, studies conducted on the relationship between emotional intelligence and aggressive behaviour mostly included adolescents aged from 13 to 18 years. Previously, local and international researchers interested in studying bullying behaviour and developing intervention programmes in schools seem to have focused on the educator's perceptions of bullying, the effect of bullying on the victims and the bystanders and implementing a whole school approach as intervention plan (Adam, 2007; De Wet, 2007; Liang, Flisher, & Lombard, 2007; Sivalutchmee, 2007; Vorster, 2002). Furthermore, there appears to be a wealth of local and international research conducted on the implementation of various intervention programmes but a lack of local intervention programmes that focus on emotional skills development of the primary school bully (Adam, 2007; Van der Merwe, 2009; Vorster, 2002; Zeelie, 2004).

There is local literature on intervention programmes previously implemented in schools to prevent bullying (Adam, 2007; Govender, 2013; Laas & Boenzaart, 2014; Olweus & Limber, 2010; Van der Merwe, 2009; Vorster 2002) and the definition and nature of bullying and learners being bullied (Efobi & Nwokolo, 2014; Mitsopoulou & Giovazolias, 2013; Olweus, 1978). However, local studies in a South African context could not be found that focused specifically on the emotional intelligence levels of bullies and their parents, as well as the use of emotional intelligence in an interventionist approach against bullying in primary schools. A further research deficiency was an absence of information on how to equip primary school-aged bullies in a South African primary school context with appropriate emotional intelligence skills to enhance their capability to handle being in a bullying situation. Moreover, there seems to be a lack of quantitative and qualitative data on the local primary school learner as a bully.

1.2.3 The concept of bullying

Dan Olweus, (1978), a research professor of psychology and pioneer researcher on bullying, defined school bullying as the repeated exposure to harmful actions of one or more learners over a time period. While there are many different definitions provided for the concept

bullying and school bullying, bullying can essentially be defined as aggressive behaviour by one or more individuals aimed at a weaker peer, primarily to assert power and control (Olweus, 1978; Sansone & Sansone, 2008).

Previously, learners were physically, mentally and emotionally abused through different acts of bullying. These acts included verbal threats, teasing or physical abuse such as slapping or kicking. In the 18th to the early 20th century, bullying was defined as physical harassment by stronger boys towards weaker boys (Sansone & Sansone, 2008).

Researchers such as Olweus, (1978, 1993), Farrington, 1993 and Lanigan (2015) who focused on bullying that occurs within the school context, described school bullying as physical, verbal or psychological acts towards an individual by another individual or group. The aim of the perpetrator who delivers' these acts, is to cause serious harm to an individual who is viewed by the perpetrator as 'weak'. However, more recently the internet has added an additional type of bullying, namely, cyberbullying. This form of bullying includes behaviours such as name-calling using text messages or voice recordings, sending threatening emails and viruses, hacking and posting pictures or videos of the victims on the internet without the permission of the victim (Dehue, Bolman, & Völlink, 2008). Previously, and presently bullies are considered social outsiders plagued by low self-esteem and who needs to "pick" on other learners to make them feel worthy (Olweus 1978). Olweus (1978) discovered that bullies have a strong need to dominate and subdue other learners thereby getting their own way. Bullies are described as learners who are impulsive, easily angered, defiant, aggressive towards adults and authority figures and lack in showing empathy for their victims or learners who appear weaker (Alvarez, 2007; Alvarez-Garcia, & Nunez, 2015; Olweus, 1993).

1.2.4 Emotional Intelligence

"*Anyone can become angry, that is easy, but to be angry with the right person, to the right degree, at the right time, for the right purpose, and in the right way, this is not easy*" (Aristotle, as cited in Goleman, 1997, p. 1).

Today the ability to read another person's innermost feelings, to handle relationships smoothly and be able to know and manage your own emotions is called emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1997). Three researchers are well known in the field of emotional intelligence namely Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Goleman (1997).

Emotional intelligence (EQ/EI) as a term was coined by Salovey and Mayer (1990) and popularised by Goleman (1997). Salovey and Mayer (1990) defined emotional intelligence as

the ability to recognise, understand and manage one's own emotions and the ability to recognise, understand and influence the emotions of others. Goleman (1997) described emotional intelligence as a combination of skills that includes empathy, self-control, self-awareness, sensitivity to the feelings of other people, persistence and self-motivation. However, a generally accepted definition of emotional intelligence is the ability to recognise, understand, manage and adequately express one's own emotions and those of others.

1.2.5 Why emotional intelligence is important

The theory of emotional intelligence precedes the work by Salovey and Mayer (1990) and Goleman (1995). Gardner (1983) identified a spectrum of "intelligences" in his book *Frames of the Mind*. These so-called 'intelligences' include language skills, logical-mathematical skills, musical skills, bodily-kinaesthetic skills and personal intelligence. Personal intelligence concerns experiencing and admitting one's own feelings, being able to control these feelings, self-motivation and the ability to maintain social relationships (de Klerk & le Roux, 2003).

Emotional intelligence is important as it allows a person to be able to appraise and express emotions. Naseer, Chishti, Rahman, and Jumani (2011) stated that the first factor of emotional intelligence is the ability to adequately determine one's own emotions and to appraise and understand the emotions of others. Further, they stated that emotionally intelligent people can respond more appropriately to their own feelings and emotions because of the accuracy with which they perceive them. These above-mentioned skills may be considered as emotionally intelligent because they require the processing of emotional information from within the person, and because some level of minimal competence is necessary for adequate social functioning. According to Zeman, Cassano, Perry-Parrish, and Stegall (2006), emotional regulation involves the management and organisation of diverse systems and components. These systems and components include internal systems, for example neurological, cognitive and subjective evaluations; behavioural components for example facial and behavioural actions; and external or social components which include cultural values, social contextual significance and personal goals.

It appears that emotional intelligence is important as it can improve our physical health, mental well-being, relationships, and conflict resolution and leadership development. Emotional attention is positively related to anger management and greater clarity and emotion repair are related to higher anger control (Adam, 2007; Garaigordobil & Pena-Sarrionandia, 2015; Hayes, 2014; Saadi, Honarmand, Najarian, Ahadi, & Askari, 2012).

Several scholars agree that learners with high emotional intelligence can resolve conflict more constructively and display less aggressive behaviour (Rivers, 2014; Saadi et al., 2012; Zeider, Matthews, & Roberts, 2009).

1.2.6 Problem statement

Considering the former discussion in this chapter, the problem statement is explained as follows:

Bullying in schools remains a problem despite the various interventions that have been implemented in local and international schools. Various studies (Brackett & Rivers, 2014; Carroll-Lind & Kearney, 2004; Pace, 2012; Rivers, 2014) done on emotional intelligence and the lack of emotional intelligence skills indicated that the lack of emotional intelligence can lead to the development of bullying behaviour in learners. In South Africa various intervention programmes have been implemented to combat bullying behaviour in primary schools. However, limited research could be found relating to the development of an emotional intelligence skills enhancement programme.

Previous studies conducted by researchers such as Vreeman and Carroll (2007), Olweus (1993) and Limber (2004), who focused on bullying and the development of intervention programmes, seemed to have focused more on a whole school approach as a solution for the prevention of bullying. Limited research could be found on studies that focused specifically on bullies and then specifically on the enhancement of the emotional intelligence skills of a primary school learner who has been identified as a bully. Local studies could not be found that focused specifically on the emotional intelligence levels of bullies and their parents, as well as the use of emotional intelligence as an interventionist approach against bullying in primary schools.

1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

The aim of this research was to assess the Emotional Intelligence of the target population (bullies between the ages of 7 and 13) and to use the information to develop an Emotional Intelligence Skills Enhancement Programme to serve as an anti-bullying intervention programme, and then evaluate the impact of the programme in determining if it assisted in decreasing bullying behaviour in the primary school context.

1.3.1 General aim

The general aim of this research was to determine whether improving the bullies' emotional intelligence by means of an Emotional Intelligence Intervention Programme against bullying, could assist in decreasing bullying behaviour in the primary school context. The aim of the emotional intelligence programme was to enhance the emotional intelligence skills of the identified bullies.

1.3.2 Pilot study

The aim of the pilot study was to test the research methods and techniques to determine how well it will work within a South African context. It was a limited study to prepare for a more in depth study and to provide the researcher with information on whether any improvements and modifications should be made before the researcher started with the major research study.

1.3.3 Phase 1

The aim of the first phase in this quantitative study was to determine and present the relationship between the independent variables (emotional intelligence, parent-child-relationship and parenting styles) and bullying as the dependant variable.

1.3.4 Phase 2

The aim of the second phase was the development of an Emotional Intelligence Skills Enhancement Programme and the implementation and evaluation thereof. An analysis of literature provides evidence of a limited number of studies in the South African context that have focused on the enhancement of emotional intelligence skills of the primary school bully as intervention against bullying.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The primary research question for this study was:

- How can the enhancement of the emotional intelligence skills of a learner who has been identified as a bully lead to a decrease in the occurrence of bullying behaviour in the primary school context?

The secondary research question for the pilot study was:

- How can the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for adults be reliable and suitable for the use in the South African context?

Secondary research questions for the first phase of the study were:

- Is there a difference between the emotional intelligence levels of identified bullies and non-bullies and between the parents of the identified bullies and non-bullies?
- What is the relationship between the identified bullies and their parents compared to the relationship between the parents of non-bullies and their children?
- Is there a difference in parenting styles chosen by parents of bullies compared to parents of non-bullies?

Secondary research questions for the second phase of the study were:

- How can the implementation of an emotional intelligence intervention programme against bullying help to decrease bullying behaviour in the primary school context?
- Will any behaviour changes be noticed in the bullies after completing the emotional intelligence skills enhancement anti-bullying intervention programme?

1.5 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Due to the lack of intervention programmes that are developmentally appropriate for primary school bullies, the ultimate objective of this study was to develop and evaluate an emotional intelligence-based skills enhancement bullying intervention programme for primary schools in Gauteng. This ultimate objective was established through the following:

Pilot study: To identify the participating schools and participants for the pilot study. To distribute the questionnaires to all the pilot study participants. To establish the reliability of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for adults in the South African context and to determine the suitability thereof, as well as that of the other measuring instruments that were used in this study. These include, emotional intelligence (Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire and BarOn Emotional Intelligence Quotient Youth Version- BarOn EQ-i:YV), relationship between parent and child (Parent-Child-Relationship Inventory - PCRI) and parenting styles (Parenting Style Questionnaire - PSQ).

Objectives for the pilot study included:

- Determining the suitability of the selected measuring instruments for the children and adults who participated in this study.
- Determining the reliability of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire.

Phase 1: Establishment of baseline data for identified bullies between the ages of 7 and 13 and their parents and comparing them with a group of non-bullying children and their

parents on emotional intelligence (Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire and Bar-On EQ-i:YV), relationship between parent and child (PRCI) and parenting styles (PSQ).

Objectives for phase 1 included:

- Determining the emotional intelligence levels of identified bullies and their parents and comparing them with non-bullies and their parents.
- Determining the relationship between parent and child of the identified bullies and their parents and comparing them with non-bullies and their parents.
- Determining the parenting style of the bullies' parents and comparing it to the parenting styles of the non-bullies' parents.

Phase 2: In Phase 2 the baseline information was used to develop an Emotional Intelligence Based Anti-bullying Intervention Programme for primary school learners in the Gauteng area of South Africa.

Objectives for phase 2 included:

- Development of an Emotional Intelligence Based Anti-bullying Intervention Programme derived from the information gathered in the first phase of this study.
- Implementation and evaluation of the Emotional Intelligence Based Anti-bullying Programme for bullies in a primary school in the Gauteng area of South Africa.

1.6 HYPOTHESIS

Pilot study:

- The Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for adults will be reliable for research purposes and suitable for the use in the South African context.

Phase 1:

- Primary school bullies compared to non-bullies will score significantly lower on the BarOn EQ-i:YV.
- Parents of the identified bullies will score significantly lower on the scales of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire than parents of the non-bullies.
- Parents of the identified bullies will score significantly lower on the PCRI than parents of the non-bullies.
- Parents of the identified bullies will have a more authoritarian parenting style, whereas parents of non-bullies will be more authoritative on the PSQ.

Phase 2:

- Comparing the pretest and posttest results on the BarOn EQ-i:YV, the participating bullies (experimental group) will score significantly higher on the BarOn EQ-i:YV after the implementation of the intervention programme.
- Comparing the pretest and posttest results, the participating bullies (experimental group) will behave in a more positive manner and will receive higher positive behaviour scores on the Teacher Rating Scale after the implementation of the intervention programme.

1.7 RESEARCH APPROACH

The research approach in a study informs the plan followed by the researcher, which is based on the nature of the research problem that was identified by the researcher and includes the methods used for data collection and data analysis. The research approach for this study was positivistic, which involved the belief that knowledge and reality for the existence of a phenomenon such as bullying could be objectively acquired through the use of quantitative methods such as questionnaires (Corry, Porter, & McKenna, 2018; Eyisi, 2016; Nel, 2019; Neuman, 2000; Teo, 2018).

Whitley (2001), and Whitley and Ball (2002) described quantitative data as consisting of numerical information such as scores on a questionnaire or the frequency with which any form of behaviour occurs. The focus of a researcher who uses quantitative methods in a study is on the identification of relationships amongst the variables included in a study and on the formulation of a hypothesis on cause and effect.

The variables included in this study and the methods that were used were defined in advance by existing theories and hypotheses that were derived from these theories. In this study numerical data were collected (Whitley, 2001; Whitley & Ball, 2002).

1.8 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design followed logically from the research problem and included the guidelines to be followed to address the research problem. In this instance, the research problems and aims were best answered by using quantitative tools such as the questionnaires that were selected for this study. This study was divided into three sections namely the pilot study, which was followed by phase 1 and phase 2.

1.8.1 Pilot study

A pilot study is viewed as an essential stage in the conduction of a research study and can be defined as a limited study which is conducted to test the research protocols, determine the instruments that are used in the research project to collect the data and to test the recruitment strategies of research participants drawn from the study population in preparation for the major study (Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Hassan, Schattner, & Mazza, 2006; van Teijlingen, 2002; van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001).

The objective of the pilot study was to:

- determine the feasibility of the study protocol (to determine the likelihood of this study being delivered successfully by taking the practical aspects of managing the study into consideration)
- the recruitment of the subjects (to identify the participating schools and to determine the number of bullies and non-bullies between the ages of 7 and 13 in each school)
- to test the measuring instruments used in this study (to determine the suitability and reliability of the measuring tools selected for the purpose of this study) and,
- to determine how the data was going to be entered for the data analysis phase (statistical methods that were used for the data analysis process).

1.8.2 Phase 1

In phase 1 of this quantitative research study the goal was to determine the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable in the primary school bullying population. In this study the dependent variable was bullying and the independent variables included emotional intelligence, parent-child relationship and parenting styles.

1.8.3 Phase 2

In phase 2 the baseline information was used to develop the Emotional Intelligence Skills Enhancement Anti-bullying Intervention Programme for primary school learners in the Gauteng area of South Africa. The programme was launched and evaluated in this phase. The second phase used a quasi-experimental research design, specifically a pre-test-post-test control group design.

1.9 SAMPLING

A sample can be defined as the number of people that are selected from a population for the purpose of a research project. To ensure that the researcher chose the right sample for the research project, it was essential to determine the following:

- Sample size (number of people to be researched)
- Sample demographics (age, gender, education, living arrangements, marital status, occupation of the learners and their parents).

It is important for the researcher to select the sample that will serve the purpose of the research project. In this study the researcher included learners who were identified by their teachers as bullies and learners who were identified as non-bullies between the ages of 7 years old and 13 years old who attended either an Afrikaans or English medium school in the Gauteng area of South Africa. The criteria for teachers to identify a learner as a bully included the following:

- Teachers must have received complaints from the learner's peers that he or she is engaging in bullying behaviour.
- The teachers must have approached the victims of the identified bully and must have collected evidence of the bullying behaviour.
- The learner must have been referred to the school based support teacher (SBST).
- The learner must have continued engaging in bullying behaviour even after receiving support from the SBST.
- The learner must have been sent to the principal.
- The learner's parents must have been informed and a meeting must have been held to plan for intervention to assist their learner in decreasing his or her bullying behaviour.
- The parents of the victim or victims must also have been informed and a meeting held with them to determine whether the bullying acts took place.
- In case of serious acts of bullying the parents of the victim or victims must have opened a case at the police station against the perpetrator.

The learners selected for this study were chosen based on meeting a combination of inclusion criteria: (1) the participants had to be fluent in understanding, speaking and writing English; (2) participants must be between the ages of 7 and 13; (3) participants had to be willing to participate in the intervention programme; (4) the participants had to be willing to complete

the questionnaires; (5) the participants attended a primary school in the indicated area in Gauteng; and (6) the participants had to be willing to fill in a pre-intervention and post-intervention questionnaire.

1.9.1 Pilot study

The Gauteng Department of Education (GDE) approved the study provided that the schools were in the Gauteng area, the schools included a diverse population, and that non-bullies were included in the sample to prevent the bullies from being identified. The department also recommended that accessibility be considered.

The researcher used purposive sampling to identify ten schools in the Benoni area. Only five of these schools and a volunteering school in the Springs area were prepared to partake in the pilot study.

1.9.2 Phase 1

For the purpose of selecting the schools, the researcher approached the six schools that participated in the pilot study. Information letters regarding the purpose of Phase 1 was handed out to the principals. From the six schools, five principals indicated that they were not willing to partake in Phase 1 and Phase 2 of the study due to the sensitivity of the research topic. Only one principal in from a primary school in the Benoni area agreed to further partake in the study.

To identify the participants, only the learners and their parents who returned their signed consent forms were included in this phase. The researcher handed out a form to be completed by the teachers. On the form the teachers had to write the names of the bullies in their class and the type of bullying behaviour displayed by them. The teachers were also requested to identify the same number of learners who are considered non-bullies in their class. The reason for selecting non-bullies was an instruction given by the GDE as they feared that the bullies would be exposed if only the bullies received letters. Purposive sampling was used in phase one of this study. The number of bullies included in this phase was 56 (n=56) and the number of non-bullies was 56. The number of fathers who were included in this phase was 79 (n=79) and the number of mothers included was 111 (n=111).

1.9.3 Phase 2

The sampling technique that was used for the second phase of the study was a purposive sampling (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Tongco, 2007; Whitley, 2001).

The same school that participated in the first phase of this research was also used in the second phase. After the number of participants for phase one were identified, the researcher sent another information letter and consent form to the parents of these learners which explained the purpose of Phase 2 of the study. The researcher requested that parents sign the consent forms for their children to form part of Phase 2 of this study, which involved the implementation of the intervention programme. All the parents of the identified learners who formed part of Phase 1 of this study returned the signed consent forms granting permission for their children to take part in Phase 2 of the study.

The experimental group consisted of 15 (n=15) learners who were identified as bullies and who returned their signed consent forms and 15 (n=15) learners who were identified as non-bullies and who returned their signed consent forms.

A second group was selected for the purpose of the control group of Phase 2 of the study. The researcher randomly selected 15 (n=15) learners who were identified as bullies and 15 (n=15) learners who were identified as non-bullies who returned their signed consent forms.

1.10 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

After the researcher formulated the research question or questions and hypotheses and selected the sample, the next step was the selection of the measuring instruments. The two most commonly used instruments in quantitative research studies include tests and questionnaires. When a researcher selects the instruments that will be used in the research study, it is important to not only consider the research question/s but also to ensure the validity and reliability of the instruments. Validity of an instrument refers to the degree to which the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. Reliability of a measuring instrument refers to the internal consistency or stability of the measuring device over time (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008; Knapp, 2009; Mohajan, 2017; Pandey & Pandey, 2015).

1.10.1 Pilot study

The aim of the pilot study was to test the suitability of the material and procedures on the participants and to provide the researcher with information regarding any improvements that needed to be made.

The instruments selected for this study included the BarOn EQ-i:YV to measure the emotional intelligence levels of the learners, Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire to measure the emotional intelligence levels of the parents, PCRI to determine

parents experience of parenting and the relationship with their children, PSQ to determine the parenting style practiced by parents and the Demographic Questionnaire to collect information regarding the participants gender, age, education, marital status and employment.

1.10.2 Phase 1

After the completion of the pilot study, the data of the different measuring instruments were analysed. The results showed that the measures were found suitable to be used for the participants in the South African context. The same measures were then included in this phase of the study.

1.10.3 Phase 2

The self-developed emotional intelligence skills enhancement intervention programme was used as the intervention programme. Each participating learner received an emotional intelligence skills enhancement workbook and homework book. Each book contained intrapersonal activities, interpersonal activities, adaptability activities, stress management activities, positive mood activities and how to help other activities.

Teacher evaluation was used to measure the success of the programme and to determine whether bullying behaviour decreased in the participating bullies. Before the implementation of the intervention programme, each teacher received a teacher evaluation form to provide a score out of 10 for negative and positive behaviour displayed by the identified bullies and non-bullies. At the end of the programme a post-test was used to evaluate any change in behaviour of the participating bullies and non-bullies as well as their level of emotional intelligence. The BarOn EQ-i:YV was re-administered.

1.11 INTERVENTION PROGRAMME

An intervention can be defined as a combination of program elements or strategies specifically designed to produce behaviour changes or improve health status among individuals or an entire target population. Interventions may include educational programmes or new policies implemented by an institution such as a school (Barlett, 2019; Finnemore, 2004; Karoly, Kilburn, & Cannon, 2005).

Intervention programmes may be implemented in different settings such as schools and communities. The advantages of the implementation of intervention programmes can lead to improvement as they can influence an individual’s knowledge, attitudes beliefs and skills.

Intervention programmes can also lead to an improvement in social support and the building of support systems and it can lead to the creation of more positive and supportive environments (Barlett, 2019; Finnemore, 2004; Karoly, Kilburn, & Cannon, 2005).

For the purpose of this study, an emotional intelligence programme as intervention against bullying in the primary school context was developed and implemented in a primary school in Gauteng, South Africa. The participants who participated in the intervention programme included identified bullies and non-bullies between the ages of 7 and 13 years old.

1.12 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

The data collection procedures in research refer to the process of gathering information on the variables of interest in the study. The data collection procedures also refer to measuring instruments that were selected to best answer the research questions, to test the hypothesis and to evaluate the outcomes of the study (Bekhet & Zauszniewski, 2012; Bernard & Whitley, 2001).

1.12.1 Pilot study

I used the surveys collected from the teachers to determine the number of consent forms to be handed out to the identified bullies and non-bullies between the ages of 7 and 13 years in each school. Only the learners who returned the consent and assent forms were included in the pilot study. The measuring instruments to be completed included the following:

- *Self-developed Demographic questionnaire* (completed by the parents). The items required the parents or guardians to complete the questions regarding their age, race, marital status, highest level of education, employment, parenting style and history of involvement in bullying behaviour (Developed by the researcher).
- *Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory Youth Version.* This measure was used to measure their level of emotional intelligence (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).
- *Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults.* This measure was used to measure the emotional intelligence of each participating parent or guardian (Developed by the researcher).
- *Parent-Child-Relationship Inventory*. This measure was completed by parents or guardians to determine their attitudes towards parenting and their children (Gerard, 2010).

- *Parenting Style Questionnaire*. This measure was also completed by the parents or guardians to determine their choice of parenting style (permissive, authoritative and authoritarian) (Baumrind, 1971; Buri, 1991; Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen & Hart, 1995).

1.12.2 Phase 1

The first phase established the baseline data for emotional intelligence levels of bullies and their parents and compared these with the data for the non-bullies and their parents. The administration of all the instruments to the participants was done in this phase to assess the relationship between emotional intelligence levels, parent-child relationship, demographic attributes and bullying behaviour. After acquiring appropriate approval from the GDE, school principals and parents, the questionnaires were administered to all participants in the bullying group and the non-bullying group. I explained the purpose of the study and how the instruments had to be completed. I was available at all stages of the data collection process to answer any questions raised by the participants.

1.12.3 Phase 2

In Phase 2 of the study, all assessments and group intervention sessions were conducted at the primary school who agreed to participate in the study. The participants between the ages of 7 and 9 years old participated in the intervention sessions on a Monday, Wednesday and Friday during the first break which lasted from 10:00 am until 10:45 am. The older participants between the ages of 10 and 13 years attended the intervention sessions on a Friday afternoon from 2:00 pm until 4:00 pm. All the sessions took place in the classroom of the researcher. Only the experimental group was exposed to the competence skills-based programme. The administration of the measures (Teacher Rating and BarOn EQ-i:YV) were conducted at pre-test, before the intervention and after 12 weeks, posttest.

1.13 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis refers to the processes associated with developing meaning and understanding from the various data sets that may be collected during the research project (Albers, 2017; Coghlan & Brydon-Miller, 2014).

In a quantitative study which involves the collection of numerical data, a researcher will use quantitative data analysis methods to statistically analyse the data collected from surveys or questionnaires that were utilised in the study. In the present study the researcher wanted to find evidence to support or reject the hypotheses that were formulated for each phase of this

study (Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Peat, Mellis, Williams, & Xuan, 2002; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012).

1.13.1 Pilot study

The reliability coefficients were calculated using Cronbach's alpha for the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire.

1.13.2 Phase 1

Descriptive statistics were provided on the scales of the BarOn EQ-i:YV, Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, PCRI and the PSQ. In the case of EQ descriptive statistics were also provided for the total score. The bullies and non-bullies were compared on the BarOn EQ-i:YV by means of independent samples t-tests. The parents of the bullies and the non-bullies were compared on the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire and the PCRI by means of independent samples t-tests as well. A chi-square analysis was used to determine if a relationship exists between the dominating parenting style as indicated on the PSQ and bullying behaviour. All analyses were done for mothers and fathers separately.

1.13.3 Phase 2

A mixed multivariate analysis (GLM) was used to explore the interaction between pre- and post-test scores and, the experimental and control group for the emotional intelligence scores and the behavioural ratings by the teachers respectively. The analysis was done for the bully group.

1.14 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR THE STUDY

The researcher obtained approval from the University of South Africa's Ethics Committee (See Appendix 15). Following the approval of the proposed research project, the researcher applied for permission from the Department of Education and school principals to conduct the research at their schools. The researcher provided verbal and written explanations of the study to the schools, parents and children prior to testing. All participants in the schools completed an informed consent and assent form, which included a written explanation of the study. The consent and assent form had to be signed by the parents/guardians and the learners.

The research was conducted by a suitably qualified person (the researcher) and was supervised by a scientifically qualified person. According to the APA, 1992: 1608 (as cited in

Bernard & Whitley, 2001), psychologists are responsible for the ethical conduct of research conducted by them.

The term ethics refers to rules that are set out for researchers to ensure that the rights and welfare of the participants are respected throughout the research process. It is important for researchers not to act in accordance to their self-interest. In line with this requirement and the Nuremberg Code of ethics (as cited in McIntyre, 2005), the researcher took the following into consideration:

- Voluntary participation
- Informed consent
- Confidentiality
- No harm to participants
- No unfair discrimination or bias
- Deception
- Provision of debriefing, counselling and additional Information

1.15 RELEVANCE AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Substantial evidence is available that bullying is a problem in schools (Govender, 2013; Olweus & Limber 2010; Van der Merwe, 2009; World Health Organisation, 2014) and that enhancing a child's emotional intelligence is effective in combating bullying behaviour in schools (Kokkinos & Kipritsi, 2011; Plaford, 2006; Rivers, 2014). Researchers such as Rivers (2014), and Kokkinos and Kipritsi (2011) found that learners with high self-esteem are less likely to bully other learners. Further, they found that if a learner with high self-esteem bullied others, he or she would be more likely to acknowledge the effect it may have on them and then attempt to change their behaviour. Research indicated that teaching learners how to deal with their own emotions and feelings and being able to have empathy for others feelings and emotions can help prevent a child from turning into a bully. In his study on the correlation between emotional intelligence and bullying, Plaford (2006) argued that children who have a limited emotional vocabulary would also be limited in their ability to feel empathy. He explained that if a child cannot understand what another child is feeling, then he or she would not be able to feel empathy for another person. O'Moore and Minton (2004) found that even though schools provide counselling for bullies, it may not be adequate, as these learners may possibly need EI skills that will assist them in managing their anger, develop empathy for other learners and strengthen their self-worth and overall self-esteem.

This study is therefore significant as the emotional intelligence skills enhancement programme aims to equip bullies with emotional intelligence skills that will promote long-term psychological well-being and prevent bullying behaviour in the future.

1.16 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study was conducted in primary schools in a region in Gauteng (schools were just in one area, Benoni and Springs) South Africa and included bullies and non-bullies between the ages of 7 and 13 years old.

1.17 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

The study is organised in the following chapters:

Chapter 1: Contextual background. This section focuses on the contextual background of bullying, the impact thereof and emotional intelligence. The rationale for the study, research problem, aims and objectives, as well as the theoretical and practical relevance of the study are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 2: Definition of terms and the theoretical framework of the study. This chapter focuses on the different terms and concepts used in the study; operational definitions for each are also provided. The different theories that informed this research are also discussed in detail.

Chapter 3: Literature review on the concept bullying. This chapter serves to review the relevant literature, deliberating on the prominent aspects significant to the study.

Chapter 4: Literature review on the concept emotional intelligence. This chapter serves to review the relevant literature, deliberating on the prominent aspects significant to the study.

Chapter 5: Research methodology. This chapter explores the research methodology, including the rationale for employing the specified methodology used in a quantitative research approach.

***Chapter 6: Results of the study*.** This chapter focuses on the results of the study.

Chapter 7: Discussion of the results. This chapter focuses on the discussion of the results.

Chapter 8: Conclusions, limitations, strengths and recommendations. This chapter focuses on the conclusions, strengths, limitations and recommendations for further study.

1.18 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The fact that school bullying remains a worldwide problem, and has recently gained more media coverage in South Africa, and due to the effects bullying may have on the bully as well as the victim, is reason enough to develop an intervention programme that specifically focuses

on the bully to attempt to alleviate bullying in primary schools. Literature has shown that bullying can have long-term and short-term psychological effects on the bully and that bullying can continue into high school and adulthood and cause more problems if it is not stopped at an early age. Furthermore, the Department of Education, schools, stakeholders, professionals, learners and society need to understand the seriousness of this topic and should not hide away from it due to its sensitivity. Equipping learners, especially bullies with the needed skills to realise the impact bullying has on them and others is of utmost importance.

This study aimed to develop the bully's emotional intelligence skills as intervention against bullying. This study can further serve as a basis for future research by the Department of Education in preventing bullying in primary schools.

The background of the study was discussed in this chapter. Attention was also given to the research problem, aim, rationale, objectives, as well as the theoretical and practical relevance of the study. The next chapter focuses on providing operational definitions for the important terms and concepts that are used in the study, as well as deliberating on the different theories that informed this research.

CHAPTER 2

DEFINITION OF TERMS AND THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the different terms used in this study. The terms include bullying, violence, cyberbullying, bullies, school bullying, victims, emotional intelligence, school-aged children, a child, intervention, empathy, primary school, primary school learner, learner, educator/teacher, aggression, demographic attributes and problem behaviour, parent-child relationship and parenting styles. Each term is defined by how it was used in previous literature. The terms will further be defined for the purpose of this study.

It is evident from Chapter 1 that bullying in the school context remains problematic despite various intervention and prevention programmes that have previously been implemented in schools. As stated, previous studies and intervention strategies focused on the victims of bullying and how they can be empowered to protect themselves but no studies could be found which specifically focus on the bullies and how they can be equipped with specific EI skills to prevent and protect them from engaging in bullying behaviour. Previous research that focused on the causes of bullying identified the lack of emotional intelligence as a possible cause of a learner becoming a bully. No research could be found which implemented the enhancement of bully's emotional intelligence skills as part of the intervention or prevention plan. This study focused specifically on learners who were identified as bullies and the development of a programme that aimed at enhancing their emotional intelligence skills in an attempt to decrease their bullying behaviour. The variables for this study included bullying as the dependent variable and emotional intelligence, parent-child-relationship and parenting styles as the independent variables.

Previous literature on bullying showed that not only can the lack of emotional intelligence lead to a child becoming a bully, but the relationship between children and their parents and the type of parenting style chosen by the parents may also have an influence on the child engaging in bullying behaviour. This study aims to determine the emotional intelligence levels of the children who were identified as bullies and compare them to children who were identified as non-bullies to determine whether there is a significant difference between the emotional intelligence of a bully and a non-bully. It is also important to determine the type of

relationship the parent of the bully has with their child and whether the type of parenting style practiced by parents may have an influence on the behaviour of the child.

In order to prevent a problem such as bullying, we need to understand the term bullying and the reason why and how it occurs. A theoretical framework was used to understand the cause of bullying behaviour and how it could be prevented. The theories selected for the purpose of this study included theories of bullying and the development of bullying behaviour in children. The theories explaining bullying behaviour included developmental theories, theories of psychosocial development, social cognitive theories and social ecological theories. The Ability and Mixed Models theories assisted in gaining a better understanding of and defining the term emotional intelligence.

2.2 DEFINITIONS OF THE TERMS RELEVANT TO THE STUDY

The following definitions include both conceptual definitions taken from relevant literature, as well as operational definitions that indicate how these constructs were measured in this research study. The following terms and definitions provide insight into the chapters that follow.

2.2.1 Bullying

Previous studies which focused on bullying and especially bullying that occurs within the school context, showed that despite various attempts to decrease bullying behaviour, it remains a serious problem (De Wet, 2010; Laas & Boezaart, 2014). One of the biggest problems in dealing with this phenomenon is the fact that an overabundance of definitions for the complex term exist without uniform application. Therefore, in order to fully conceptualise, define, understand and address the term within this study, a framework of definitions is needed. When considering the act of bullying, terms such as bullying, cyberbullying, aggression, violence, learner and educator/teacher are of crucial importance and will therefore be defined and discussed.

The concept bullying refers to a form of social interaction, not necessarily longstanding, in which a more dominant learner (the bully) exhibits aggressive behaviour that is intended to, and in fact does, cause stress to a less powerful learner or person (the victim) (Hemphill, Heerde, & Gomo, 2014; Olweus, 1996; Ross, 2003; Smith, 2004). The term bullying also refers to persistent behaviour which includes physical, psychological, social or verbal abuse by learners with power on those who appear powerless (Olweus, 1993; Smith & Ananiadou,

2003). Roland and Galloway (2002) defined bullying as a long-standing act of violence, physical or psychological, conducted by an individual or a group of people or learners and directed at individuals who appears weak and are unable to protect themselves. Bullying is also defined as the wilful and conscious desire to hurt another learner or person or to put him or her under stress (Tattum & Tattum, 1992). There may be different definitions given to the term bullying however, the following definition of bullying was used for the present study, namely that bullying is any behaviour a child exhibits with the intention to hurt another learner physically or psychologically, for no just cause (Efobi & Nwokolo, 2014; Isidiho, 2009; Monks & Smith, 2006; Nwokolo, Anyamene, & Efobi, 2011; Olweus, 1978; Roland & Munthe, 1989; Sullivan, 2009). In the present study, bullying was measured by teachers providing a short description of the type of bullying behaviour that occurs in his or her class.

2.2.2 Violence

According to Laas (2012) violence lays the foundation for bullying behaviour and bullying acts and it is therefore important to gain an understanding of violence and how it is linked to bullying behaviour. The term violence is defined by the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (1989, p. 1613) as "behaviour involving physical force intended to hurt, damage or kill another" (Hornby, 1995). The WHO (2002) defined violence as the intentional use of physical force or power by an individual or group, threatened or actual, against oneself, another person, or against a group or community that either results in or has a high likelihood of resulting in injury, death, psychological harm, mal-development, or deprivation" (WHO, 2002, p. 4). This definition emphasises that a person or group of people must intend to use force or power against another person or group for an act to be classified as violent. The definition not only includes the use of physical force but also the use of threatened or actual power by an individual against another individual (Laas, 2012; Rutherford, Zwi, & Butchart, 2005).

2.2.3 The relationship between bullying and violence

Laas (2012) described bullying as forming part of violence. However, when planning intervention programmes to combat bullying in schools, it is important to note that the root causes of bullying behaviour differ from other forms of violence.

Nansel, Overpeck, Haynie, Ruan, and Scheidt (2003) stated that bullying behaviour should not be considered as forming part of the child development process but should rather be

viewed as an indicator of more serious violent behaviour in the future. They defined the act of bullying as the intention of an individual to harm another individual and described it as a power differential between bullies and their victims. In their study they found a relationship between bullying and violence related behaviours such as carrying weapons to school and fighting to more serious acts such as homicide. The results of their study showed that the involvement in bullying, both for the bully and the victim were associated with weapon carrying, fighting and injuries resulting from the fighting. They concluded that there is a strong relationship between bullying behaviour and the involvement in violent behaviours. The researchers suggested that prevention programmes should focus on reducing violent and aggressive behaviour such as bullying and should also focus on the promotion of positive and healthy school and family environments.

2.2.4 Cyberbullying

A new type or form of bullying emerged from the advancement in technology. This type of bullying is termed "cyberbullying" and is defined as cruelty by one person towards another person by posting or sending harmful material or information about the person using the Internet or other digital communication devices such as texting or Facebook (Li, 2006). According to Ybarra and Mitchell (2004), cyberbullying is defined as an intentional mean and overt act of aggression towards another person. For the purpose of this study, cyberbullying refers to bullying that takes place when a child is using electronic technology to gain power over his or her victim. The electronic or technical devices include computers (sending email or posting messages or video clips on Facebook), laptops (sending email or posting messages or video clips on Facebook), cell phones (sending text messages, posting comments or video clips on Facebook), tablets (sending text messages, posting comments or video clips on Facebook) and other communication tools such as social media sites (Facebook, Instegram and Snapchat), text messages, chat rooms and websites (American Humane Association, n.d.; Donegan, 2012; Hinduja & Patchin, 2009; Li, 2008; Smit, 2015).

2.2.5 Bullies

According to Atkinson and Hornby (2002), bullies are adults and children who use their strength and power to hurt or frighten weaker learners or people. For the purpose of this study, bullies refer to children who tend to be strong, impulsive, hot-tempered, defiant, fearless, and

coercive and lack empathy for their peers (Hurley, 2012; Olweus, 1978; Solberg, Olweus, & Endersen, 2010).

2.2.6 School bullying

There is no universal definition for the term school bullying. However, Olweus (1993) defined school bullying as the repeated negative ill-intentioned behaviour by one or more learners directed against another learner or learners who have trouble defending themselves. Generally school bullying is viewed as a type of bullying that occurs in an educational setting and can be described as a "warning sign" that the school system is problematic (Al-Ali & Shattnawi, 2018; Healy, 2014; Healy, Sanders, & Lyer, 2014, Olweus, 1993; Olweus & Limber, 2010; Rigby & Smith, 2011; Solberg & Olweus, 2003).

2.2.7 Victims

According to Banks (1997), victims are those learners who appear more vulnerable than their peers. Webster, (as cited in Harris & Petrie, 2003, p. 14) described victims as learners who are anxious, insecure, quiet, have few or no friends and become upset very easily. Researchers such as Bennet, (2008), Coloroso, (2009) and Harris and Petrie, (2003) described two types of victims. The first type is the passive victim. These learners are characterised by having low self-esteem, are insecure, introverts and perceived by their peers as being depressed. Passive victims may remain victims for longer periods as they hardly report the bullying. The second type of victim is the proactive victim. These learners are perceived as more outspoken, confident and fight back when they are being bullied. Proactive victims are described as the least favourite learner in the class. These learners are often the ones who shout out answers or act impulsively, or are constantly in trouble for behaving badly or disrupting the teacher during a lesson. As a result, the class may either ignore this learner or speak to this learner in a negative manner.

2.2.8 Emotional Intelligence (EI)

The ability to read another individual's innermost feelings, to handle relationships smoothly and be able to know and manage your own feelings and emotions is known as emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1997). According to Goleman (1997), EI is a combination of skills which includes empathy (understanding what other people are experiencing), self-control, and self-awareness, sensitivity to the feelings of other people/children, persistence and self-motivation. Further, Goleman (1997) explains that emotional intelligence is the link

between an individual's feelings, character and moral values. A generally accepted definition for the term EI is provided by de Klerk and le Roux (2003) who describe emotional intelligence as the ability of an individual to identify, understand and effectively communicate their feelings in an appropriate manner to other individuals and the ability to also identify and understand that emotions of others. An emotionally intelligent individual is described as having empathy for the emotions of others.

The emotional intelligence of the bullies was measured by the BarOn EQ-i:YV. The emotional intelligence of the bullies was measured before and after the implementation of the Emotional Intelligence Based Anti-bullying Intervention Programme.

2.2.9 School-aged child

For the purpose of this study, a school-aged child refers to a boy or a girl who is between the ages of 7 and 13 years old (Coyne, Hayes, Gallagher, & Regan 2006; Laas, 2012).

2.2.10 Child

The Children's Act 38 of 2005 describes a child as: "a person under the age of 18 years". The Child Justice Act 75 of 2008 (as cited in Laas, 2012) defines a child as any person under the age of 18 years. For the purpose of this study, a "child" refers to any child under the age of 18 (Coyne, et al., 2006; Laas, 2012).

2.2.11 Learner

Following the definition of a child, the term "learner" is also paramount. The South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 (as cited in Laas, 2012) defines a learner in section 1 as any person receiving education or who is obliged to receive education in terms of this Act. The Schools Act takes it a step further and states in section 3 (1) that it is compulsory for a learner to attend school from the first day of the school year in which he or she turns 7 years old up until the last school day of the year in which the learner turns 15 years old (or ninth grade) (Laas, 2012).

2.2.12 Educator or teacher

An educator is commonly known as a teacher. The National Education Policy Act 27 of 1996 describes an educator in section 1 "as any person who teaches, educates or trains other persons at an education institution or assists in rendering education services or education auxiliary or support services provided by or in an education department, but does not include

any officer or employee as defined in section 1 of the Public Service Act, 1994 (Proclamation No. 103 of 1994)". The South African Schools Act 84 of 1996 defines an educator in section 1 as "any person, excluding a person who is appointed to exclusively perform extracurricular duties, who teaches, educates or trains other persons or who provides professional educational services, including professional therapy and education psychological services at a school". For the purpose of this study, "educator" or "teacher" refers to the person who provides education and creates an educational environment where children under the age of 18 receive education (Laas, 2012, p. 29).

2.2.13 Intervention

The concept "intervention" is defined as taking some form of action by using a wide range of activities to help or change something such as behaviour (Adam, 2007; Hodges, Walker, Kleinboer, & Ramirez, 2011). The emotional based anti-bullying intervention programme was used as intervention for this specific study.

2.2.14 Empathy

Empathy is an aspect of emotional intelligence and is defined by Lee, (2015) as the ability to recognise, understand, verbalise and deal with the emotions of others. In basic terms, empathy refers to the ability to put yourself in someone else's shoes and understand how that person feels.

Goleman (1997) described three types of empathy. He defined cognitive empathy as the ability of a person to know or understand how another person may feel or what that person may be thinking.

Emotional empathy is defined as the ability of a person to be well-attuned to the feelings and emotions of another person. In many cases, people with emotional intelligence may be so "in tune" with the emotions of the person being observed which results in the observer experiencing the same emotions. In this case, Goleman states that the observer may lack the ability to manage their own distressing emotions which can lead to burnout.

The third type of empathy is known as compassionate empathy. This type of empathy is defined as the ability of a person to not only understand another person's feelings and emotions but also be able to be spontaneously and emotionally moved to assist the person in dealing with his or her emotions (Goleman, 1997).

2.2.15 Primary school

Alien (as cited in Pillay, 2007) defined primary school as a place where young children below the age of 14 receive basic education. For the purpose of this study, "primary school" refers to an education setting where children between Grade 1 and 7 receive education.

2.2.16 Primary school learner

Du Toit and Kruger (as cited in Pillay, 2007) defined a primary school learner as a child between the ages of 9 and 13 who attends school for the purpose of receiving education and learning. For the purpose of this study, "primary school learner" refers to a child between the ages of 7 and 13 (Grade 1 – 7) who receives education in a primary school education context.

2.2.17 Aggression

There are many different definitions provided for the term "aggression". A general definition for aggression, describes it as behaviour intended to injure another person or child (either physically or verbally). In psychological literature, aggression is defined as any action or behaviour intended to cause harm to an individual toward whom it is directed. Psychologists also distinguish between hostile and instrumental aggression. Hostile aggression is described as aggression where the sole aim is to inflict injury on a person or child, and instrumental aggression is where the aggression is intended to obtain rewards (Bar-On & Richardson, 1994; Dollard, Doob, Miller, Mowrer, & Sears, 1939; Fiske, Gilbert & Lindzey, 2010).

2.2.18 Demographic attributes

For the purpose of this study, the demographic questionnaire was distributed to collect background information. The attributes included in this study are: age, race, gender, place of birth, ethnicity, marital status, highest level of education, employment, parents' involvement in bullying, parenting style adopted by parents, child's access to a cell phone and the internet and parents' thoughts regarding their child being a bully.

2.2.19 Problem behaviour

Problem behaviour in children includes oppositional behaviour and violent acts such as physical, verbal or cyber-bullying (Jessor & Jessor, 1977; Jessor, 2014).

2.2.20 Bullycide

As discussed in the above, bullying has led to children and adolescents taking their own lives. This phenomenon is known as "bullycide". From a legal perspective provided by Laas (2012) bullycide is the act of committing suicide as a result of having to endure bullying and the inability to deal with it. She argued that when any form of bullying behaviour or actions lead to the death of a victim, a bully can be held criminally liable for the death of the victim (Laas, 2012; Serani, 2018).

2.2.21 Parent-child relationship

Previous studies which focused on the factors that may play a role in children engaging in bullying behaviour, showed the lack of parental support and involvement as one of the key role players. Parent-child relationship refers to the unique bond between a primary caregiver and a child which includes emotional, social and physical interaction (Gerard, 2010; Stafford, Kuh, Gale, Mishra, & Richards, 2014; Yadav, 2017).

2.2.22 Parenting styles

Parenting styles refers to a set of attitudes toward a child that are communicated to the child by the parent or primary caregiver. These behaviours may include goal-directed behaviours, non-goal directed behaviours, gestures, tone of voice, facial expressions and the expression of emotions. Initial studies focused on three components of parenting styles namely, the emotional relationship between the parent or primary caregiver and the child, parent practices and behaviours and the belief systems of the parents or caregivers (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Kuppens & Ceulemans, 2018). In the present study, "parenting styles" refers to the three parenting dimensions developed by Baumrind (1966, 1971) namely, the authoritative, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. The authoritarian parenting style is described as the strict and controlling parenting style and the authoritative parenting style refers to a demanding but not responsive parenting style and the permissive parenting style refers to a warm and accepting parenting style (Baumrind, 1966, 1977).

2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A theoretical framework is required to comprehend the cause of a phenomenon such as bullying behaviour, why it exists and how it can be prevented or decreased in the context where it is taking place. The present study did not aim to develop a new theoretical framework. Therefore, existing theories were used to gain a better understanding of the bullying

phenomenon and to assist in the development of an intervention and prevention plan to decrease the occurrence of bullying behaviour in the South African context and especially in primary schools.

As stated in Chapter 1, bullying in the school context is a worldwide phenomenon that remains problematic and is on the rise locally and internationally despite various attempts to implement intervention and prevention programmes. This study used existing theories to consider the aspects that need to be taken into consideration when planning the development of an intervention programme suitable for the South African context.

A theory is selected for its power and "elegance" in explaining an educational or social event, for example, why emotional intelligence can decrease bullying behaviour in the primary school context. A theory is also a perspective on events, and always exists in the context of competing or rival theories (Vithal & Jansen, 2012). The theoretical framework comprises the relevant theories involved in the understanding and execution of the research study.

Before the intervention programme was designed, it was important to understand the phenomenon "bullying", why it exists and the reason for children to engage in bullying behaviour. Many hypotheses were generalised regarding the factors that may play a role in the reason for some children being more at risk for bullying their peers. Some factors may include a lack of social support, lack of parental and familial involvement, parenting styles, being part of a particular culture or having a disability and the lack of emotional intelligence (Bracket & Rivers, 2014; Baumrind, 1966, 1977; Buchanan, 2003; Gerard, 2010; Goleman, 1997; Rigby & Smith, 2011; Rivers, 2014). The present study focused on factors such as the emotional intelligence levels of children and their parents, parent-child relationship and parenting styles and the effects on the child in the South African context.

Theories that guided the understanding of the term bullying and the reason for some children being at risk of bullying other children were included. These theories, which are discussed in the next section, are divided into three sections namely, developmental theories, systems theories and other prominent theories related to bullying. The developmental theories include Piaget's (1952) Theory of Constructivist Cognitive Development, Freud's (1924, 1977) Psychoanalytic Theory of Development, Personality and Aggression and Bowlby's (1969) Attachment Theory. The systems theories include Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Theory, Problem-Behaviour Theory of Jessor & Jessor, (1977) and Bronfenbrenner's (1979)

Social Ecological Theory. Other theories that are related to the development of bullying behaviour in children include the Social Capital Theory and the Dominance Theory.

As the aim of the present research study was to use emotional intelligence as intervention against bullying by means of the development of an emotional intelligence skills enhancement programme, the theories that guided this research include the two general theories of the construct of emotional intelligence namely, the Ability model and Mixed theory.

2.4 THEORIES RELATED TO BULLYING

Given the complexity of bullying behaviour, researchers such as Dubin, 1978, Evans & Smokowski, 2015 and Olweus, 1978 suggest that multiple theories should be used to fully explain this social dynamic and what motivates a child to engage in bullying behaviour.

2.4.1 Theories of child development and bullying behaviour

The cause of a phenomenon such as bullying and why children engage in bullying their peers can be best explained by a theory or various theories. It is important to understand the child and his or her development when one wants to understand the phenomenon or explain why a child is bullying another child. Bullying is viewed as a complex social dynamic that, according to scientists interested in studying the phenomenon, can be best understood by using various theoretical frameworks (Evans & Smokowski, 2015; Lester, Cross, & Shaw, 2012; Mauder & Crafter, 2018; Wang, Iannotti, & Nansel, 2009).

2.4.1.1 Piaget's Constructivist Theory of Cognitive Development

Piaget (1952) believed that the social context plays an important role in a child's development. However, most of his work focused on the role individuals play in their own development (Muthivhi, 2009; Papalia, Wendkos Old, & Feldman, 2009; Watts, Cockcroft, & Duncan, 2009). He referred to children as "little scientists" in their process of development. According to Piaget (1972), children only really understand the world around them when they invent things in their own way. Further, Piaget (1952) believed that the stages of cognitive development unfold in the same order irrespective of a child's cultural background. In his studies, Piaget found that the acts of thinking, perception, language and morality are all influenced by a child or person's intelligence.

According to Piaget (1952), there are four different cognitive developmental stages. These stages include the sensorimotor, pre-operations, concrete operations and formal operations stage. Table 2.1 provides a summary of the developmental stages. Piaget argued that children

pass through these stages at different rates, and therefore the ages he attached to each stage should not be viewed as important but only as a guideline. However, Piaget (1952) states that all children progress through the stages in a fixed sequence. Piaget (1952) explained that each progressive stage reflects an increasingly more complex way of thinking (Inhelder, Chipman, & Zwingmann, 1976; Piaget & Inhelder, 1969; Watts et al., 2015).

Table 2.1

Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development

TYPICAL AGE RANGE	DESCRIPTION OF STAGE	DEVELOPMENTAL PHENOMENA
Birth to 2 years	*Sensorimotor* Children experience their world through their senses and actions (looking, hearing, touching, mouthing and grasping).	• Object permanence • Stranger anxiety
2 to 7 years	*Preoperational* Children represent things with words and images. Intuitive reasoning is used as they are not able to use logical reasoning.	• Pretend play • Egocentrism
7 to 11 years	*Concrete Operational* Children are thinking logically about concrete events. They can grasp concrete analogies and are able to perform arithmetical operations.	• Conservation • Mathematical transformations
12 years to adulthood	*Formal Operational* Children can use abstract reasoning.	• Abstract logic • Potential for mature reasoning

Note. Watts et al., 2009

In stage 1 which is known as the sensorimotor stage, Piaget (1952) believed that basic sensory inputs and motor capabilities are co-ordinated to form sensorimotor schemes, which is how an infant processes information from his or her environment during the first two years of his or her life (Inhelder et al., 1976; Watts et al., 2015; Piaget, 1952).

Stage 2 is described by Piaget (1952) as the stage that involves intellectual curiosity. He named this stage the preoperational stage as he believed the pre-school children have not yet acquired the necessary cognitive operations that would enable them to think in a logical manner or interpret reality in a proper manner. Piaget (1952) went on to divide the preoperational stage into two parts: the pre-conceptual stage (2 to 4 years) and the intuitive or transitional stage (5 to 7 years). According to Piaget (1952), the pre-conceptual stage is characterised by a child's increased ability to make use of symbols, including language and symbolic play. For example, a child who is playing with a broom as if it were a horse is

engaging in symbolic play. The use of symbols enables a child to think about things and objects which are not part of his or her immediate environment. Piaget (1952) explained that children in this stage find it extremely difficult to distinguish between mental, physical and social reality. In the intuitive stage which begins at the age of 5 years, Piaget (1952) described the child as less egocentric and better able to classify objects on the basis of perceptual categories such as size, shape and colour (Inhelder et al., 1976; Papalia et al., 2009; Watts et al., 2015; Piaget, 1952).

In stage 3 which is known as the concrete operational stage, Piaget (1952) described the child as having the ability to perform reversible mental actions on real concrete objects but not on abstract objects. During this stage, Piaget (1952) described the child's thinking as being more logical.

During the fourth and last stage which is known as the formal operational stage, Piaget (1952) described cognitive development as being characterised by increased abstract thinking and the use of metacognitive skills which is the child's ability to think about his or her own mental processes (Piaget, 1952). At this stage, Piaget (1952) described the adolescents thinking as more systematic and they have the ability to think ahead.

These stages are relevant to our understanding of bullying behaviour. From the above discussion on Piaget's (1952) Theory of Cognitive Development, it is clear that cognitive development is concerned with a person's ability to think, reason, understand and memorise the things that happen in the world around us (Dussich & Maekoya, 2007). Piaget, (1952) found that during the preoperational stage (ages 2 to 7 years) children develop their ability to socially interact with children and people around them. He also found that during this stage, children begin to test the limits of their cognitive abilities and begin learning negative concepts and actions such as lying, bullying and back chatting (Dussich & Maekoya, 2007; Piaget, 1952).

During the concrete operational stage (ages 7 to 11 years), Piaget (1952) found that children develop the ability to show concern or be empathic towards other children and people. He explained that during this stage, children experience heightened emotions and they are more short-tempered and easily aggravated. In his studies, Piaget (1952) stated that it is common for children at this age to show anger towards children and people who are preventing them from reaching a goal they have set for themselves. However, according to Piaget (1952) children who are emotionally competent were found to be able to express their

feelings and emotions in a more socially acceptable manner and are also able to recognise other children and people's emotions (LeCroy & Ashford, 2013; Piaget, 1952).

In conclusion, if we follow Piaget's theory, it is important that parents and educators start educating children about bullying behaviour from the age of two as this is when he believed they could begin to exercise action.

2.4.1.2 Freud's Psychoanalytic Theory of Development and Personality

"*The tendency of aggression is an innate, independent, instinctual disposition in a man. It constitutes the most powerful obstacle to culture"* (Freud, n.d.).

Bullying behaviour, which forms part of aggression, has become a worldwide topic of vital importance and a major concern in most societies and schools. The term aggression and bullying are defined in psychological literature as any action or behaviour that intends to cause harm and pain to a person or a child or a sequence of behaviour where the goal is to seriously injure a person or child (Jessor, 2014; Karr, 1971).

Sigmund Freud is known as the father of psychoanalysis. He based his theory on the assumption that humans are creatures who seek out experiences that will lead to maximised pleasure and will minimise any forms of discomfort and pain (Avis, Pauw & van der Spuy, 2004). Freud asserted that humans and human behaviour are a product of the unconscious and are motivated by sexual and distinctive drives and aggression within the individual mind. These sexual and instinctive drives are known as the libido, which is energy derived from the Eros which is known as the life instinct. Freud (1949) stated that the repression of the libidinal urges is displayed in the form of aggression. In his various studies, Freud found that human behaviour is influenced by the unconscious motives which are rooted in childhood experiences (Avis et al., 2004; Freud, 1949; Papalia et al., 2009; Watts et al., 2009).

Freud identified five stages of psychosexual development that guided the psychodynamic theory in understanding personality development and the origins of aggression in children. A summary of the psychosexual stages of development is shown in Table 2.2.

The first stage is the oral stage which occurs during the ages 0 to 1 years. At this stage babies explore their environment and experience pleasure through their mouths. The mouth is considered the source of pleasure when the baby is sucking, licking or tasting or exploring. During this stage, Freud believed that the attitude of the mother is very important as a baby can sense his or her mother's attitude and reaction during feeding time (Avis, et al., 2004;

McLeod, 2008; Sadock & Sadock, 2013). When the child is not experiencing pleasure during feeding time, aggression can be expressed by the baby biting the mother's breast.

Table 2.2

Freud's Psychosexual Stages of Development

STAGE	AGE	SOURCE OF PLEASURE	RESULT OF FIXATION
Oral	Birth to 12 months	Activities where the mouth is involved including, sucking, chewing and biting	Excessive smoking, overeating and dependence on others
Anal	Age 2 – during toilet training	Bowel movements	A controlling personality or easily angered
Phallic	Age 3 to 5 years	Genitals	Guilt or anxiety about sex
Latency	Age 5 to puberty	Sexuality is latent or dormant during this stage	No fixations occur during this stage
Genital	Starts in puberty	The genitals become important again and sexual urges return	No fixations during this stage

Note. Watts et al., 2009

The second stage is the anal stage which occurs during the ages 2 to 3 years. During this stage, Freud stated that pleasure is experienced through excreting or holding in waste products (Avis, et al., 2004). Children usually start potty training and this is often accompanied by reward and praise by the child's primary caregivers. The parents train their children to know when to get rid of their "waste products" at the right time and at the right place. When a child is not experiencing the potty-training process as pleasurable or receives rewards from parents, aggression may be shown by the child dirtying him- or herself, withholding body waste or relieving themselves in inappropriate places (Avis et al., 2004; McLeod, 2008).

The third stage is the phallic stage and occurs between the ages of 3 to 5 years. During this stage a child focuses on his or her genitals and on the parent of the opposite sex. Freud conceptualised this stage in terms of the Oedipus and Electra complex. The Oedipus complex is where a boy develops a desire for his mother and the Electra complex is where a little girl develops a desire for her father. According to Freud (as cited in Avis et al., 2004) little boys believe that all humans have a penis. The childhood reaction of a boy realising that not all humans have a penis is one of fear. He may fear that someone might take it away from him. In girls they become jealous of little boys and develop penis envy. Children in this stage will explore their own bodies as well as those of others. When parents or primary caregivers punish children or deal with their exploration in a punishing way, aggression may be shown in terms of inappropriate touching and boys masturbating in a public area (Papalia et al., 2009).

The fourth stage is the latency stage and occurs during the age of 5 years to puberty. Freud proposed that during this stage children's sexual instincts are latent as children are going to school and focus more on developing their academic and physical skills (Avis et al., 2004). During this stage children become more aware of the people who are important to them and who have fulfilled their basic needs. Children become aware that these people play an important role in their lives and that they love them and therefore children will also love them back. Freud described this developmental phase as a quieting phase of sexual and aggressive urges. In his view, the latency years represent a relatively calm era between the manifest turbulence of the oedipal period and the inevitable arrival of pubertal pressures (Avis et al., 2004; Watts et al., 2009).

The last stage is the genital stage and occurs during puberty. The main source of pleasure for the child is yet again the genitals. Freud explained that at the beginning of this stage, children direct their life energy towards members of the same-sex in the form of intimate friendships or idealisation of a same sex teacher or coach. According to Freud, it is normal for a child to go through a homosexual phase. However, the successful resolution of this stage, of a child not remaining homosexual lies in the ability of the child to establish meaningful relationships with members of the opposite sex. The successful resolution of this stage will be evident when a child experience heterosexual love (McLeod, 2008).

In concluding this section, it is important to note that any obstruction to the resolution of a psychosexual stage may lead to the development of aggressive behaviour and possible psychosocial problems.

To understand the development of aggression as explained by Freud in his psychodynamic theory of aggression, we will look at the structures of the mind as divided by Freud. Freud divided the mind into the conscious, pre-conscious and the unconscious which he linked to the proportions of an iceberg as shown in the Figure 2.1.

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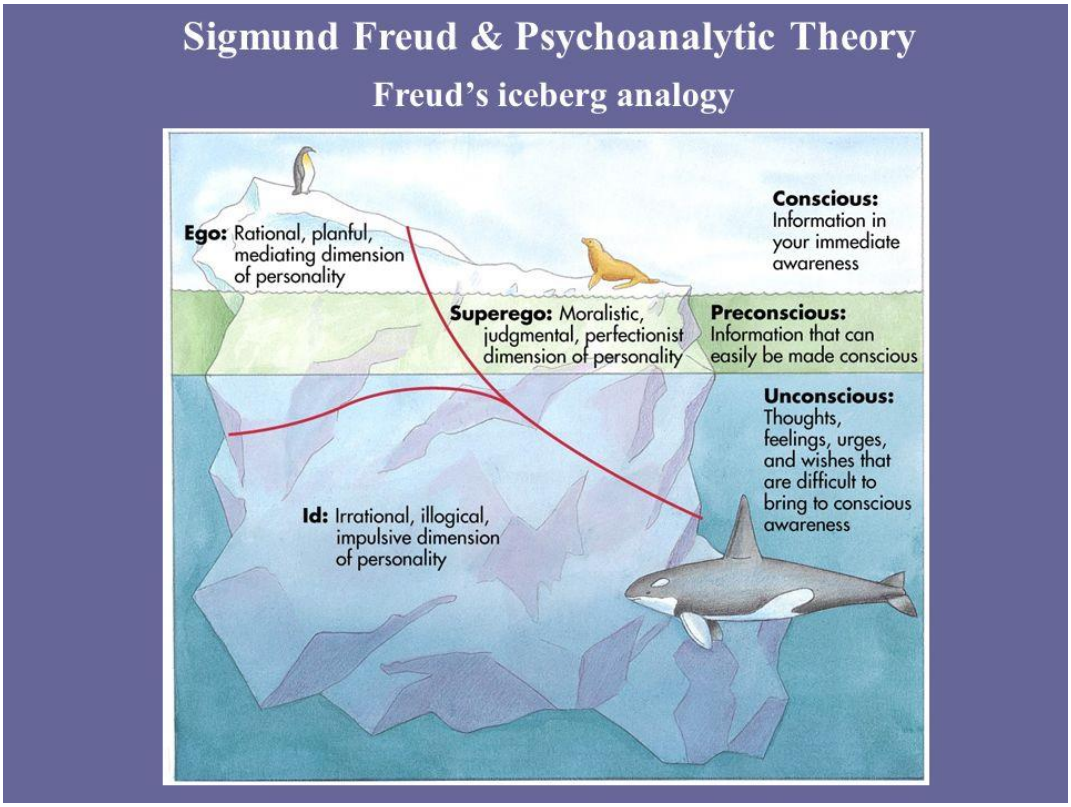

Figure 2.1. **Freud's structural model of the mind** retrieved from http://www.slideplayer.com

The fourth stage is the latency stage and occurs during the age of 5 years. Freud proposed that during this stage children's sexual instincts are latent as children are going to school and focus more on developing their academic and physical skills (Ehrmann, 2005). During this stage children become more aware of the people who are important to them and who has fulfilled their basic needs. Children become aware that these people play an important role in their lives and that they love them and therefore children will also love them back. Freud described this developmental phase as a quieting phase of sexual and aggressive urges. In his view, the latency years represent a relatively calm era between the manifest turbulence of the oedipal period and the inevitable arrival of pubertal pressures (Ehrmann, 2005).

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Freud (as cited in McLeod, 2008) compared the conscious mind to the part of an iceberg that sticks out above the water. It contains the thoughts a person or child is currently thinking. According to Freud a person or child might not have aggressive thoughts in their conscious mind, but they might still be driven by aggressive urges that they are unaware of.

The pre-conscious part of the mind is described as the part a person or child is only aware of on occasion. He compared it to the part of the iceberg that is below the water-line but still visible to the human eye (de Sousa, 2011; Watts et al., 2009).

Freud described the region of the mind that operates autonomously and which plays a crucial role in mental functioning, as the unconscious. This part of the mind is the area which steers humans in displaying behaviour and emotions for which the motivations are unknown to the conscious mind. Freud asserted that the unconscious influences our everyday functioning and it is implicated in the formation of pathological functioning (Balconi, Fronda, Venturella, & Crivelli, 2017). The unconscious was compared to the bulk of the iceberg which is under the water and not visible.

Freud (in van Deventer & Mojapelo-Batka, 2013) described three parts of the psyche namely, id, ego and superego that develops at different ages and are locked into conflict with each other (Van Deventer & Mojapelo-Batka, 2013).

The "id" is described as the original component of a human's personality and it consists of urges and desires (Van Deventer & Mojapelo-Batka, 2013). Freud stated that the id is not rational, is made up of feelings and exists in the unconscious. As the id is unconscious, it functions according to the pleasure principle and does therefore not understand logic. The id does not have the knowledge to distinguish between right and wrong. According to Freud, the id is directed toward fulfilling a person's immediate needs without considering the consequences (Boag, 2014). When the id is denied any form of pleasure, it may become frustrated which then leads to aggressive urges.

The "ego" is the second part of the psyche. According to Freud, the ego develops in the toddler stage. As a child gets older, it is important for them to be able to adapt to objective reality. The ego exists within the conscious mind and is based on the reality principle. Freud described the function of the ego as granting the desires that comes from the id. Further, the ego is described as having no conscience and it cannot distinguish between right and wrong. Freud asserted that the ego can understand the meaning of punishment and will try its best to avoid it. Yet it still has no feelings of guilt. The ego will do whatever is needed to please the id even if it involves aggression (Avis et al., 2004; Boag, 2014; Van Deventer & Mojapelo-Batka, 2013).

The "superego" is the last part of the psyche and is it also the last part of the personality to develop. Freud argued that the superego is the product of the internalisation of parental authority and it also involves the child identifying with other authority figures such as the teacher (Freud, 1937). The authority figures identified by the child are the ones who determine what is wrong and right for the child. From these lessons taught by parents and other authority figures, the child learns that he or she must act in a socially acceptable manner. The superego thus functions as the part of our personality that reminds us about the rules and expectations of society (Freud, 1937).

According to Freud (in Watts et al., 2009) the "superego" has both positive and negative sides. The positive side is called the ego-ideal and it develops from the child's identification with their same-sex parent and the morals and values inherited from their parents.

The negative side of the "superego" develops from a child's fear of the type of punishment their parents decide to use as form of discipline. A child can also develop a negative superego as a result of heightened or innate fantasies of aggression and harm towards others. This negative aspect of the superego is known as the conscience. The conscience is the part of the superego that consists of rules. If a child indulges in bad acts or thoughts, the superego punishes them with feelings of guilt. Freud theorised that, as boys have a severe form of prohibition in the form of the castration anxiety, they have a more fully developed superego than girls. Freud stated that any child who does not properly develop a superego will as a child and adult lack respect for authority figures and the law (Freud, 1937; Watts et al., 2009).

The primary function of the superego is therefore to inhibit any unconscious impulses of the id. According to Freud (1937) the superego operates on the conscious, preconscious and unconscious levels of the mind.

It is evident from the above discussion that the ego has a difficult task in attempting to create a balance between the demands of the id and the superego. It is clear that conflict is unavoidable, and it takes place between our primitive drives and our experience of what society expects of us and what is considered socially acceptable behaviour.

Given that the function of the ego is to negotiate between the id and superego's demands, the ego must have a way to do this. According to Freud (1937), defence mechanisms reside in the unconscious domain of the ego. Freud defined a defence mechanism as a specific unconscious, intra-psychic adjustment that occurs for a human to resolve emotional conflict and to reduce feelings of anxiety (Watts et al., 2009). Freud identified many defence mechanisms namely, repression, denial, suppression, regression, reaction formation, fixation, identification, introjection, projection, rationalisation, idealisation, intellectualisation, displacement, dissociation and sublimation. However, the following five defence mechanisms are linked to the development of aggression (Freud, 1937; Kramer, 2010).

Repression – Repression is the first defence mechanism and is also viewed as the most important. It is defined by Freud as the involuntary and automatic placing of unacceptable impulses and feelings or images into the unconscious mind. That is, a person is unconsciously motivated to forget (Watts et al., 2009). According to Freud the aggressive urges that are being repressed drains a person's libido. Eventually a person does not have enough energy to keep the aggression repressed and it results in an aggressive explosion (Freud, 1937; Watts et al., 2009).

Denial – Denial is viewed as the avoidance of a painful aspect of reality by negating sensory data (Sadock & Sadock, 2007). According to Freud (1937) the unconscious mind refuses to admit what is being done. For example, an abusive husband or wife insists that they love their spouse while abusing them.

Projection – Projection is when a person attributes to another person his or her own thoughts, feelings and unacceptable impulses (Watts et al., 2009). According to Freud (1937) the super-ego's hostility is directed towards other people who appear to be acting on those feelings. This often involves blaming a victim for provoking the aggression.

Displacement – Displacement is described as the shifting of an emotion or drive from one idea or object to another that resembles the original (Sadock & Sadock, 2007). According to Freud (1937) the "id's" urges are acted upon but they are directed at a different target. This often happens with aggression which can be targeted at a specific person rather than the real cause of a person's anger. Sport such as boxing can be viewed as a form of displaced aggression (Freud, 1937; Kramer, 2010; Sadock & Sadock, 2007; Watts et al., 2009).

2.4.1.3 Bowlby's Attachment Theory

The Attachment Theory focuses on the early caregiving relationships and the way these relationships support a child's development. The nature of the parent-child relationship during early childhood is believed to be one of the main factors in the development of a child's personality and interpersonal functioning, and it has implications for the development of psychopathological behaviours in children (Watts et al., 2009).

Attachment Theory and research initially emerged from the clinical observations of the psychoanalyst John Bowlby (1969; 1973; 1980). Bowlby, (1969) identified the fundamental importance of the infant-caregiver attachment for development. Attachment means a strong emotional bond developed between an infant and his or her caregiver. In his studies, Bowlby looked at the long-term developmental impact on children who were separated from their primary caregivers for long periods of times. A study he conducted in an institution with maladjusted infants who were separated from their primary caregivers due to specific situations, like illness or even a war, led him to believe that early disruptions in the infant-caregiver relationship resulted in a range of behavioural, emotional and mental problems (Bowlby, 1969; Kobak, Cassidy, Lyons-Ruth, & Ziv, 2006).

In the 1950's Bowlby and his colleague James Robertson conducted a study where they observed young children who were hospitalised, institutionalised or separated from their

primary caregivers. They found that the children appeared to experience a pattern of distress being separated from their primary caregivers. This pattern revealed angry protest which related to anxieties developed as a result of being separated, followed by despair, suggesting a period where the children were grieving or mourning and detachment when the separation was prolonged and the children attempted to protect themselves from the feelings of stress, anxiety and fear of losing his or her primary caregiver (Robertson & Bowlby, 1952; Sroufe, 2005; Papalia et al., 2009).

According to Bowlby (1969), attachment is a gradual developmental process that evolves from birth. He described four phases in the development of an infant and child's attachment. Table 2.3 shows Bowlby's phases of the development of a child's attachment.

Table 2.3

Bowlby's Phases of Attachment Development of an Infant

PHASE	AGE	BEHAVIOUR
Pre-attachment	0 to 2 months	Undiscriminating social responsiveness. Crying, smiling, babbling, grasping and reaching. Tracking, listening and responding to a parent, caregiver or adult's speech.
Attachment-in-the-making	3 to 6 months	Discriminating social responsiveness. Ability to single out his or her primary caregiver.
Clear-cut attachment	7 months to 3 years	Active initiative in proximity and contact. Increasingly discriminating. Strangers are approached and treated with increase caution. Use of newly developed language and loco-motor skills to seek out and maintain contact with his or her attachment figure.
Goal-corrected attachment	3 years and Older	The child begins to understand his or her mother's point of view, feelings, plans and motives, and to make inferences about her behaviour. The child develops a more complex relationship or partnership with his or her primary caregiver.

Note. Watts et al., 2009

Bowlby (1969) defined temperament as the inherited personality traits present at birth (Bowlby, 1969; Plomin & Dunn, 1986). He believed that infants are born with characteristic levels of sociability and emotional styles, including levels of emotional reactivity to disturbances in their environment. According to Bowlby (1969), individual differences along temperament dimensions carry implications for the frequency and quality of exchanges between a child and the people in his or her environment. He explained that these exchanges may in turn modify characteristic expression of temperament (Watts et al., 2009). Studies

cited by Hetherington and Parke (2002) stated that the temperament of a child is related to the type of attachment formed with his or her primary caregiver. In their studies, they found that infants with 'difficult' temperaments or less sociability have demonstrated more distress when they were separated or reunited with their primary caregivers than more sociable infants (Hetherington & Parke, 2002).

Bowlby's (1969) Attachment Theory has also been regarded by researchers as a theory of affect regulation (Kobak et al., 2006; Sroufe 2005; Watts et al., 2009). Bowlby regarded the attachment relationship as the context within which an infant learns to regulate his or her emotions.

In his studies, Bowlby (1969; 1973) argued that differences in the quality of care, including the responsiveness of the child's primary caregiver led to differences in emotional arousal and expression, modulation and flexible control of the emotions expressed by child (Sroufe, 2005). According to Bowlby (1969), poor quality care by a child's primary caregiver and a child developing an anxious attachment will be revealed in dysfunctional emotional regulation (Sroufe, 2005). Bowlby (1969) and Sroufe (2005) believed that children, who participated in responsive and efficient regulated attachment relationships with their primary caregivers, are expected to carry forward a capacity for self-regulation and a sense of the self as being competent in the ability to maintain some degree of emotional regulation (Bowlby, 1969; Sroufe, 2005). Resistant children are believed to have experienced intermittent caregiver responsiveness to their signals of distress and therefore they may develop a low threshold for threat, be preoccupied with having contact with their primary caregivers and show signs of frustration regarding contact when they are feeling distressed (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). Bowlby (1969) stated that resistant children or children with a history of avoidant attachment tend to have an underlying anger or negativism that they have learned not to express as a result of not forming a secure attachment with the primary caregiver, and therefore these children may develop individual styles that distance feelings and people (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1969; Sroufe, 2005).

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According to Sroufe (2005), variations in the response to stressful life circumstances and the development of psychopathology can be related to a child's early experiences of caregiving and the quality of attachment. Morisset, Barnard, Greenberg, Booth, & Spieker (1990), stated that a secure attachment experienced by a child constitutes a protective factor in a child's ability to confront stressful situations and it also constitutes a child a measure of psychological resilience (Morisset et al., 1990).

Mikulincer, Horesh, Eilati, and Kotler (1999) stated that children who experience a feeling of security in their attachment are more able to handle stressful situations and will be able to handle everyday problems situations better than children who formed insecure attachments with their primary caregivers. Further, these children will also be able to deal with extreme levels of psychological and physical threats (Mikulincer et al., 1999). According to Mikulincer and Florian (1998), this adaptation role may be derived from three sources:

a. The secure child's optimistic attitude towards life may act as a shield in the face of unexpected adversity.
b. The secure child's positive self-image may allow him or her to confront difficult life situations they are faced with daily with a sense of self-efficacy.
c. The secure child's openness to new information may allow him or her to be able to better adjust to environmental changes and they may develop more realistic coping strategies when dealing with these environmental changes (Mikulincer & Florian, 1998).

In contrast, Sroufe (2005) argued that children, who have adopted insecure strategies to cope with or to adjust to every day changes they are faced within their environment, may be

vulnerable to stresses and adverse life events (Carlson & Sroufe, 1995). Carlson and Sroufe (1995) stated that a resistant child may become excessively caught up in negative emotion and will thus be unable to engage effectively in social relationships. Further, Carlson and Sroufe (1995) noted that resistant children may develop patterns of relating to other people in their environment based on heightened displays of emotion or extreme passivity.

Bowlby's attachment theory provides a way of describing how individuals form affectionate bonds with people they interact with daily. This has implications for the development of bullying behaviour. The attachment theory pointed out that a secure attachment between individuals are fundamental in a social relationship and depends on the fulfilment of certain needs identified by the individuals (Ainsworth, et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1969, 1982; Hazan & Shaver, 1994). Bowlby's theory of attachment describes the bullying behaviour as a result of the development of an insecure or ambivalent attachment between the child and his or her parents or primary caregivers. Laible, Carlo, and Roesch (2004) and Unnever (2005) suggested three reasons for a child to bully another child:

a. The family of the child who performs bullying behaviour may exhibit a high degree of both conflict and exposure to violence which may result in the development of an avoidant attachment.
b. The primary caregivers of the victim may have raised their child in an over-protective home environment and exerted great personal control.
c. The active victim (the bully) refers to inconsistent parenting styles and punitive, hostile or abusive treatment, leading to the child developing an anxious and insecure attachment with his or her primary caregivers (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1969, 1982; Hazan & Shaver, 1994; Laible et al., 2004; Unnever, 2005).

In the next section, the theories included in this study to describe the role systems play in the development of bullying behaviour will be discussed.

2.4.2 The family system and bullying

According to Swearer and Hymel (2015) bullying behaviour is a unique but complex form of interpersonal aggression which takes on many forms, serves many purposes and is manifested in different patterns and relationships. The authors argue that bullying should not be viewed as a dyadic problem between the bully and his or her victim, but should be recognised as a group phenomenon, occurring in a social context in which various factors serve to maintain, promote and or suppress behaviour (Rodkin & Hodges; 2003; Salmivalli,

2001). The theories that describe the influence the family has on bullying includes Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Theory, Bowlby's (1969) Attachment Theory, the Problem behaviour theory and Bronfenbrenner's (1979) Social Ecological Theory.

2.4.2.1 Bandura's social cognitive theory/ social learning theory

The Social Cognitive Theory of Albert Bandura is based on the premise that "environmental contingencies play an important role in guiding behaviour" (Durkin, 1995 p. 21). The theory provides an understanding of children as social beings, as well as being cognitively aware of their surroundings. The primary difference between Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory/Social Learning Theory (1977) and previous learning theories is the idea of observational learning; that is, that children learn not only by experience but also by observing how others are behaving. Basic reinforcement principles highlight that children learn about the world, their environment and the behaviour they choose, through the process of positive or negative reinforcement. Maladaptive behaviours, which may be unintentionally reinforced by parents or primary caregivers, may continue as they provide the child with some form of reward or may serve a purpose (Bandura, 1977). Likewise, adaptive behaviours, which are not acknowledged by parents or caregivers, may in fact be extinguished because of the lack of reward available to the child (Bandura, 1977).

Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Theory describes the influence of the family on bullying. This theory explains the modelling of violence and asymmetrical power relationships through exposure to them (Postigo, Gonzalez, Montoya, & Ordonez, 2013). Bandura (1977) believed that human learning does not always require direct and visible reinforcement. According to Bandura (1977), a powerful predictor of a child's behaviour is what they can directly observe from an adult or a peer. Bandura (1977) described that children are influenced by patterns of reward and punishment from what they observe happen to other children. Bandura argued that children learn new behaviours through the process of modelling. For example, observing adults showing through their behaviour what they want and what they need. He further noted that children do not just learn actual behaviours they also learn ideas, expectations and develop their own internal standards (Bandura, 1977; Postigo et al., 2013).

Previous studies which focused on human development focused on behaviourism as a factor that plays a role in human development. Three main categories of thought distinguishing educational theories include developmental, environmental and crossover theories. Some examples of the crossover theories include William Glasser's Choice Theory,

Lev Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development, and Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive theory. Questions asked by crossover theorists may include "What is the role of consciousness in development and behaviour?" or "How does a person's self-identity affect his or her decision-making process?" In addition to acknowledging the impact of external forces on development and behaviour, crossover theorists also included cognitive processes when analysing human behavioural choices (Ananda, 2006; Bandura, 1991).

Bandura's (1977) early work on learning was grounded in the behavioural principles of punishment and reinforcement. However, he added a focus on learning from children observing people and other children around them. Bandura labelled this as the Social Learning Theory. Later, Bandura placed more focus on cognitive factors such as beliefs, self-perceptions, and expectations and from this he changed the Social Learning Theory to his theory called Social Cognitive Theory (McLeod, 2016).

In the Social Cognitive Theory, Bandura (1977) agrees with the Behaviourist Learning Theories of classical conditioning and operant conditioning. However, he added that mediating processes occur between stimuli and response and behaviour is learned from the environment through the process of observational learning.

According to Bandura (1977), children observe how the people around them behave in different ways. This is illustrated in one of Bandura's (1961) famous Bobo Doll experiments. Bandura (1977) stated that in society, children are surrounded by different people who are influential models. These models may include parents, teachers, family members, characters in the stories they watch on television as well as their peers at school (McLeod, 2016). Behaviours imitated or observed by children may include feminine, masculine, pro and anti-social behaviour. Children observe the people (models) and encode the behaviour displayed by them. Later the child will imitate the behaviour they observed.

Bandura (1977) explained that children may often copy any type of behaviour whether it is gender appropriate or not. However, the child is more likely to observe and imitate people they perceive as similar and the same gender as they are. As a child imitates the observed behaviour, the people around them will respond to the behaviour by either reinforcing or punishing it. Bandura (1977) stated that children continued performing behaviours that were rewarded by the models. Reinforcement may be experienced internally and externally and can be positive or negative. If a child wants his or her behaviour approved by his or her parents, this type of approval is an external reinforcement, and feeling happy for receiving approval is internal reinforcement. A child will display behaviour which he or she believes will receive

approval from his parents as children desire approval (McLeod, 2016). Reinforcement may be positive or negative, but the important factor is that it may ultimately lead to a change in a child's behaviour.

Further, Bandura (1977) noted in his studies that children observe what happens to other people when they behave in certain ways. When deciding to imitate the model's behaviour, the child will consider whether the model was rewarded or punished for the type of behaviour displayed. For example, if a younger sibling observes that the behaviour displayed by an older sibling is being rewarded, the child is more likely to repeat the same behaviour. According to Bandura (1977), this is vicarious reinforcement (Bandura, 1977; McLeod, 2016).

The Social Cognitive Theory is often described as the 'bridge' between traditional learning theory and the cognitive approach. This is because it places focus on how mental (cognitive) factors are involved in the learning process (Bandura, 1977; McLeod, 2016).

Bandura (1977) believed that people are active information processors and that they think about the relationship between the behaviour they display and the consequences thereof. According to Bandura (1977), observational learning cannot occur unless a person's cognitive processes are at work. Individuals thus do not automatically observe the behaviour of a model and imitate the behaviour, there is some thought put in place prior to the imitation and this consideration is known as the mediational processes. This mediational process occurs between the observation of the behaviour (stimulus) and deciding to imitate the behaviour or not (response) (Bandura, 1977; McLeod, 2016).

In Figure 2.2 (next page), an illustration is given to show the difference between Behaviourist Learning and Cognitive Learning processes.

Bandura (1977) proposed four mediational processes:

1. **Attention:** The extent to which a person is exposed to or observes behaviour displayed by models. For behaviour to be imitated by a person, it has to be interesting.
2. **Retention:** Retention refers to how well a person can remember the observed behaviour. Social learning does not always happen naturally, therefore the process of retention (memory) is extremely important even if the behaviour is not produced shortly after observing it.
3. **Reproduction:** This is a person's ability to perform the behaviour just demonstrated by a model.

4. **Motivation:** Motivation refers to the will of a person to perform an observed behaviour performed by a model (Bandura, 1977; McLeod, 2016).

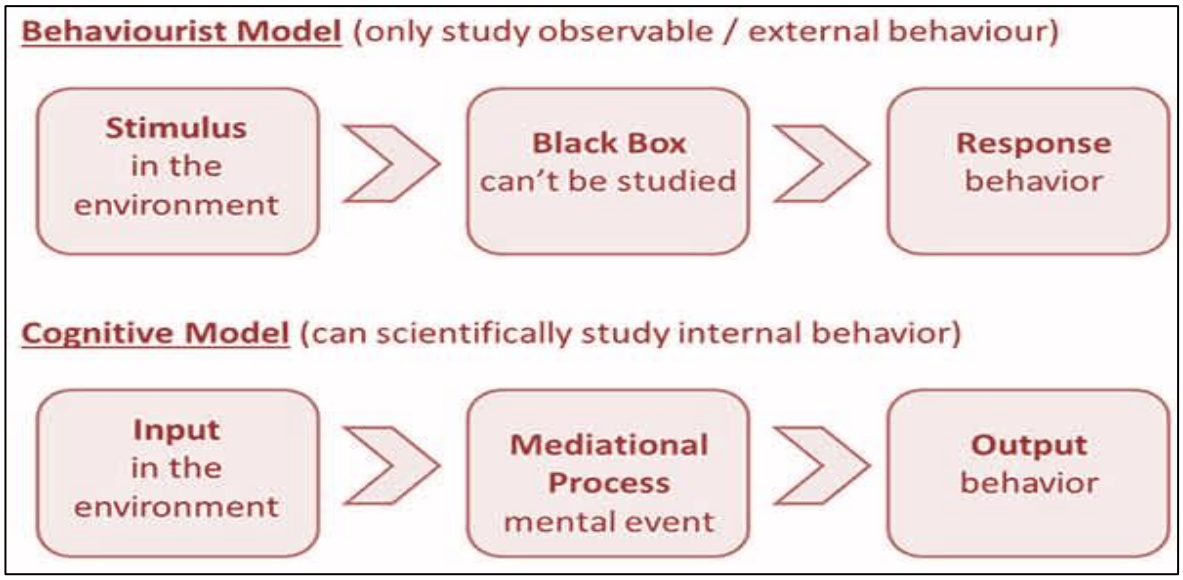


Figure 2.2. **Differences between Behaviourist Learning and Cognitive Learning Processes** retrieved from www.mmk22.weebly.com

Bandura's earlier work focused on aggressive behaviour in a child as it developed through social learning (observing the behaviour of people around them). His initial theories were based on observing adolescents who were raised in an environment where parents displayed aggressive behaviour. However, his most significant work on aggression and aggressive behaviour involved his study on preschool children. Bandura, Ross, and Ross, (1961, 1963) tested 36 boys and 36 girls from the Stanford University Nursery School aged between three and six years old. The experiment involved the placement of a blow-up-doll in a room and exposing three different groups of preschool children to different behaviours displayed in the playroom. The researchers pre-tested the participants for how aggressive they were by observing the children in the nursery and judged their aggressive behaviour on four five-point rating scales. It was then possible for the researchers to match the participating children in each group so that they had similar levels of aggression in their everyday behaviour (Bandura et al, 1961). The laboratory experiment was used in which the dependant variable (type of model) was manipulated in three conditions (aggressive model shown to 24 children, non-aggressive model shown to 24 children, no model shown – control condition – 24 children included). The experiment involved the placement of the Bobo Doll (blow-up doll) in a room

filled with toys and exposing three separate groups of pre-school children to different behaviours performed in the playroom.

The results of the experiment were as follow:

- The participating children who observed the aggressive model made far more imitative aggressive responses than those who formed part of the non-aggressive or control group.
- There was more partial and non-imitative aggression among those participating children who observed the aggressive behaviour which was performed, although the difference for non-imitative aggression was small.
- The girls who were exposed to the aggressive model conditions showed more physical aggressive responses if the model was male, but more verbal aggressive responses were displayed when the model was female. However, the exception to this general pattern was the observation of how often the girls punched the doll. In this case the effects of gender were reversed.
- The participating boys were more likely to imitate same-sex models than the participating girls. The evidence for girls imitating same-sex models was not strong.
- The experimenters observed that the participating boys imitated more physically aggressive acts than the girls. Little difference in verbal aggression between the boys and girls were observed by the experimenters (Ananda, 2006; Bandura et al., 1961, 1963; McLeod, 2016).

The findings of the experiment support Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Theory. For Bandura et al., (1963) the "Bobo Doll" experiment illustrated the importance of modelling as demonstrated in the Social Cognitive Theory. That is, children learn social behaviour such as aggression through the process of observational learning. In other words, children learn to behave in certain ways through observing the behaviour of another person (model) (McLeod, 2016).

Bandura et al., (1963) concluded that some behaviour is indeed the result of direct training or conditioning of some form. He felt that certain things such as personality patterns come from modelled behaviour where the behaviour observed by children is usually that of a parent or parents (Ananda, 2006). Bandura et al., (1963) provided an example where a parent hit his or her child as punishment for aggressive behaviour such as bullying towards a peer or a sibling. The purpose of the punishment given is an attempt by the parent to decrease the

aggressive behaviour performed by the child. However, Bandura et al., (1963) explained that the act of hitting the child is teaching the child another form of aggression for the child to imitate (Ananda, 2006; Bandura et al., 1963).

From the above it is clear why Bandura et al., (1963) specifically emphasised the Social Cognitive theory as the principles of the theory showed that not only can modelling teach people how to behave, it can also teach them how to judge, teach them about morality and help to develop their cognitive abilities. Conclusively, Bandura's theory constitutes that bullying or any form of violent behaviour is learned and maintained through environmental experiences either directly or vicariously and that learning of aggression is controlled by reinforcement contingencies and punishment. If a child is thus "rewarded" for any aggressive behaviour, the child may most likely repeat this type of behaviour in the future.

2.4.2.2 Problem-Behaviour Theory

A theory derived from the Social Learning Theory of Rotter (1954) is called the Problem-behaviour Theory. This theory is described as a systematic, multivariate and social-psychological framework. The Problem-behaviour theory, as described by Jessor and Jessor in 1977 is also referred to as a crossing point of the fields of social psychology, developmental psychology and the psychology of personality (Jessor & Jessor, 1977; Jessor, 2014). It enlarges the limits of the discipline-confined approach by incorporating factors that lie in the individual, as well as those that lie in the social environment, analysing their joint commitment to variety in human activity and experience. The basic preface of the theory asserts that all human behaviour is the result of a person interacting with his or her environment (Lewin, 1951). As per Jessor and Jessor (1977) the theory is a psychosocial model used to explain dysfunction and maladaptation in children and adolescents. This theory proposes that the inclination towards particular problem behaviours involves the interest in different kinds of risky and other types of problematic behaviours and less interest in normal behaviours (Jessor & Jessor, 1977; Lester, Cross, & Shaw, 2012).

The Problem-Behaviour Theory has been used to explore behaviours viewed as socially unsuitable and that evoke a negative social reaction (Lester et al., 2012). The generality and strength of this theory have been tested during research conducted on substance abuse, deviancy, delinquency and risky sexual behaviours (Jessor & Jessor, 1977; Lester et al., 2012).

Problem behaviour is depicted as behaviour that is socially unacceptable and characterised by society as a problem, a wellspring of concern, or as undesirable by the social or legal norms

of society and its institutes of authority (Lester et al., 2012). It is behaviour that more often than not evoke some type of social control, regardless of whether insignificant, for example, an announcement of objection, or outrageous, for example detainment (Lewin, 1951).

Traditionally, bullying behaviour is defined as any type of aggressive behaviour involving the systematic abuse of power through aggressive and unjustified acts towards another. This behaviour is repeated and intended to inflict harm and injury towards the person at which it is directed. Bullying behaviour involves both direct and indirect forms (Lester et al., 2012; Smith, 2004). The Social Cognitive Theory affirms that children and adolescents model their friend's behaviour, such as bullying, as they feel that they have formed part of a group or "subculture" where this type of behaviour is accepted (Jessor, 2001; Lester et al., 2012).

Lester et al. (2012) found that direct bullying execution is a more grounded indicator of violence and anti-social behaviour in adolescence. Cyberbullying execution is a new form of deviation adopted by children. This is additionally seen as problem behaviour because it is a new type of bullying behaviour that is practised by children and adolescents (Lester et al., 2012; Mitchell, Ybarra, & Finkelhor, 2007).

The problem-behaviour theory framework has rational implications for developmental behaviour change. The theory has been developed to describe the predisposition in the case of some children to take part in problem behaviour such as bullying or substance abuse in adolescents (Jessor, 2001; Lester et al., 2012). The conceptual structure of problem-behaviour theory framework incorporates three factors: the perceived-environment system, the personality system, and the behaviour system (Jessor, 2001). Each framework is composed of variables that serve either as supportive gestures for participating in problem behaviour or controls against involvement in problem behaviour. It is the harmony among supportive gestures and controls that determines the degree of inclination for problem behaviour within each system (Jessor, 2001).

In conclusion, the concepts that set up the behaviour system incorporate both problem behaviours and conventional behaviours. Inclusion of any one problem behaviour may increase the probability of association in other problem behaviours. Conventional behaviours are socially affirmed behaviours and are seen as suitable for children and adolescents. They incorporate church attendance, and involvement with academic course work and achievement (Jessor, 2014).

2.4.2.3 Bronfenbrenner's Social Ecological Theory

(Patil, 2018)

Bronfenbrenner developed his ecological systems theory (Figure 2.3) in 1970 to explain how everything in an individual child and the child's environment affects how the child will grow and develop. The social ecological theory conceptualised human development as a bidirectional interaction between individuals and the various systems in which they operate (school, home, community, neighbourhood and society) (Watts et al., 2009).

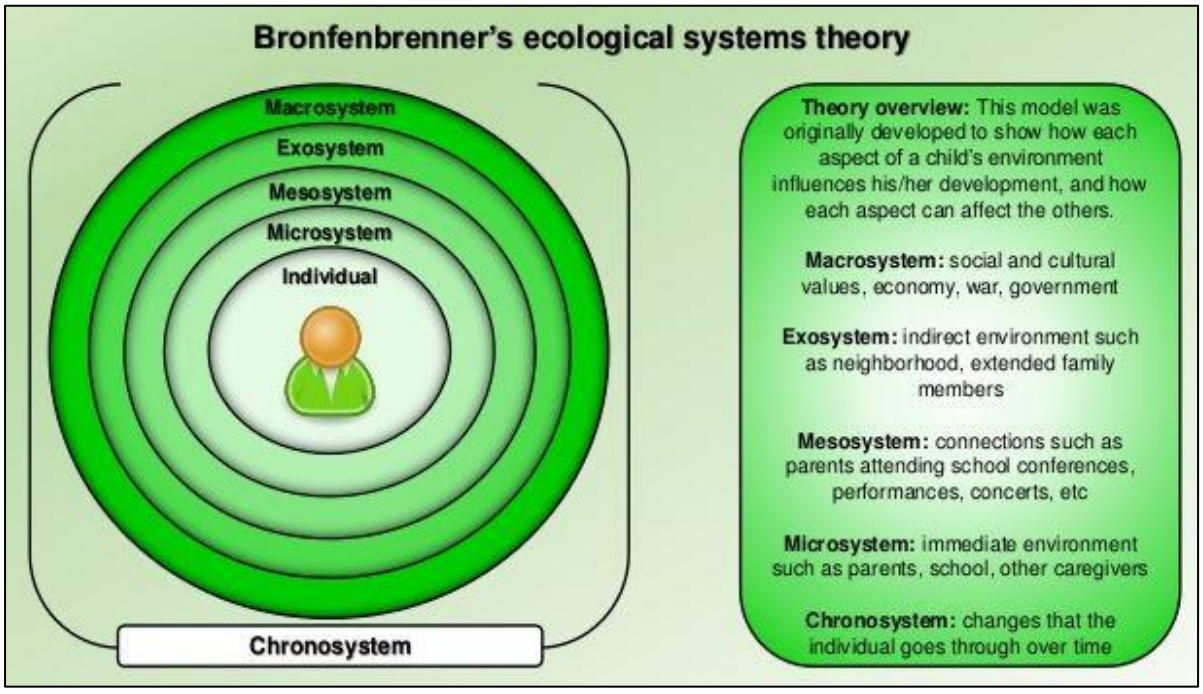


Figure 2.3. **Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems Theory** (Berk & Roberts, 2009, p. 28)

Bronfenbrenner (1979) labelled different aspects or levels of the environment that influence a child's development. These levels include the microsystem (immediate context that directly affects the development of a child), mesosystem (system of microsystems formed when a child moves into a new setting), exosystem (social settings or organisations beyond

the child's immediate experience – parents workplace), macrosystem (includes the laws, values, traditions and customs of society) and chronosystem (dimension of time) (Watts et al., 2009).

- **The Microsystem**

The microsystem is described as the small, immediate context that the child lives in and which directly affects the development of the child. The child's microsystem will include any immediate relationships with important figures such as primary caregivers, parents, siblings, friends, classmates and teachers (school or day-care). How these important figures or organisations interact with the child will affect the child's overall development. Bronfenbrenner (1979) stated that the more encouraging and nurturing these figures and organisations are towards the child, the better the child will develop. Further, how a child acts or reacts towards these important figures or organisations will determine how these figures or organisations will treat the child (Berk, 2000; Watts et al., 2009).

- **The Mesosystem**

The mesosystem is referred to as a system of microsystems which is formed when a child moves into a new setting. The microsystem of a child is enlarged at this level and it includes the school as a whole, the child's home environment which also includes the neighbourhood, the child's extended family and social relationships with his or her peers. An example of how the new setting may influence the development of the child is where parents and teachers may collaborate in the educational planning of a child (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Watts et al., 2009).

- **The Exosystem**

The exosystem refers to the social setting or organisation a child does not form part of, but it still affects the child's development. This may include settings such as the child's parent's workplace, the community, welfare, health systems, parent's network of friends, the activities of the school board and the class of an older sibling (Watts et al., 2009).

- **The Macrosystem**

The macrosystem refers to the largest and most remote set of people and things the child forms part of. It may include the laws, values, traditions and customs of society (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Watts et al., 2009).

- **The Chronosystem**

Bronfenbrenner (1979) viewed time as a fundamental influence on the direction of the psychosocial development of a child and he used the term chronosystem to describe the dimension of time. Time is viewed as important as it entails the patterning of environmental

events and transitions over the life-span of a child. Elements within the chronosystem can be external, such as the death of a loved one or parents getting divorced, or it can be internal which includes the physiological changes that occur within the child. An important example may be where the rights of woman are increasing in the Western culture (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

According to Bronfenbrenner (1979), in understanding a child's development, it is important to examine multi-persons systems of interaction which are not limited to a single setting and considers aspects of the environment which the child is not an immediate part of.

Bronfenbrenner (1979) argued that there are various factors or levels which may influence a child's commitment to bullying behaviour. These levels include individual traits, the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem and the macrosystem (Lee, 2010). Individual predictors include prior bullying victimisation, dominance, impulsivity, a child's attitude toward aggression and fun seeking tendencies. Bronfenbrenner (1979) stated that bullying behaviour should not be viewed as a result of individual characteristics, but it should be viewed as behaviour influenced by multiple relationships with people including family members, peers and neighbours.

- **Individual traits**

The individual factors which may play a role in the development of bullying behaviour includes age, prior experience of bullying and victimisation, dominance, impulsivity, attitude toward aggression and fun-seeking tendencies (Bentley & Li, 1995; Bosworth et al., 1999; Boulton, Trueman, & Flemington, 2002; Farrington, 1993). Studies on these individual factors suggest that children with higher levels of dominance, impulsivity, positive attitudes towards bullying, and fun-seeking tendencies are more likely to bully their peers (Bentley & Li, 1995; Bosworth et al., 1999).

Microsystem and bullying

As discussed above, the microsystem is the layer closest to the child and it includes the structures with which the child has the closest contact on a daily basis (Berk, 2000; Lee, 2010). According to Bronfenbrenner (1979), the microsystem level includes four different aspects of a child's life namely, the child's interaction with his or her family members, teachers and peers, and life in the school context (Lee, 2010). At this level, relationships impact the child in two different ways, away from the child and toward the child. For example, a child's parents may affect his or her beliefs and behaviour. However, Bronfenbrenner (1979) believed that the child may also affect the behaviour and beliefs of his or her parents (Berk, 2000).

Bronfenbrenner labelled this as bi-directional influences and he shows how these influences occur among all the levels of the child's environment.

- **Family predictors of bullying behaviour development in children**

Family predictors of a child becoming a bully may include the attitude of his or her parents or guardians toward bullying behaviour, the parents' or guardians' parenting style and the child's experience of domestic abuse. Studies regarding the bullying phenomenon within the microsystem (Christie-Mizell, 2003; Espelage, Bosworth, & Simon, 2000; Lee, 2010; Shields & Cicchetti, 2001) stated that factors within the family systems include parental violence, authoritarian parenting style and parental or guardian permissive attitudes toward bullying behaviour. Studies on these factors within the family system suggest that children who come from a home environment where the primary caregivers, guardians or parents practice an authoritarian parenting style, where they are exposed to domestic violence, and where parents have a positive attitude towards bullying, are more likely to bully their peers.

- **School context as predictor of the development of bullying behaviour in children**

In the school context, the reason given for a child engaging in bullying behaviour may include the teachers' attitude towards bullying, the attitude of the child's peers toward bullying behaviour, the type of bullying intervention in the school, moral authority of the teachers, power dynamics, coercion of public self, level of difference and acceptance, and pseudo-friendship among peers (Lee, 2010).

The concept power-dynamic refers to children who bully other children to obtain higher social status. Less powerful children are being bullied by these children in order to maintain their dominance (Lee, 2010). The level of difference and acceptance of a child refers to how much children and their peer groups tolerate the differences of their classmates. When children do not accept the differences of their peers, this may result in children bullying those children who appear different to them (Lee, 2010).

In a study conducted by Cairns and Cairns (1991), they found that a discrepancy between children's perceptions of how they are viewed by their peers and their self-image (or "public self" and "internal image") may be a predictor of bullying victimisation (Lee, 2010). The term pseudo-friendship network refers to a relationship that provides children with protection from being victims of bullying. However, it requires children to, in turn, bully other children in order to maintain a relationship with the deviant peer or peer-groups (Lee, 2010). According

to Lee (2010), experience within the school environment refers to the school climate and how children experience it and how they are influenced by it.

Naito (1990) argued that a teacher's lack of moral authority has been associated with an increase in bullying behaviour in the classroom. Studies conducted in South Korea suggested that where teachers and the school failed to implement proper intervention against bullying the amount of bullying in the school increased (Lee, 2010; Naito, 1990).

Mesosystem and bullying

According to Espelage (2014), the interaction between components of the microsystem is referred to as the mesosystem. This system offers insight into how contexts can exacerbate or buffer experiences for children who are involved in bullying and peer victimisation. The mesosystem levels include the communication of the parents or guardians with the child's teachers and peers. Several studies on parent or guardian involvement and communication with teachers and peers verified that a lack of parent or guardian involvement in the child's school may contribute to the child engaging in bullying behaviour (Flouri & Buchanan, 2003; Harris & Petrie, 2003; Lee, 2010).

Exosystem and bullying

The exosystem is the layer which defines the larger social system in which the child may not function directly. The structures in this layer impact the child's development by interacting with some structures in his or her microsystem (Berk, 2000). The parent's workplace and schedules are examples of this layer. The child may not be directly involved in his or her parents' work environment however, the child may be affected by the working hours of schedules of parents (Berk, 2000). A child is thus not directly involved at this level but he or she does experience the positive and negative force involved with interaction with his or her own system (Berk, 2000). If a parent for example has to work late and has little communication with his or her child after working hours, the child may feel neglected and this in turn may lead to a child taking out his or her frustrations on a peer or sibling in the form of bullying behaviour (Berk, 2000).

Macrosystem and bullying

The macrosystem of a child includes the culture a child forms part of, the race of the child, the socio-economic setting such as urban or rural and the country the child lives in (Lee, 2015). The above factors may play a role in the child engaging in bullying behaviour or being a victim of bullying. Lee (2015) explained that aggressive behaviour of a child may result from being exposed to domestic violence and being raised by angry parents. Parents may be angry

as a result of their low socio-economic status which may include unemployment. In turn, as a result of the low socio-economic status of the family the child may be a victim of bullying by children who come from a higher socio-economic background.

In conclusion, according to Bronfenbrenner, (1979), children are viewed as the centre of their world and they interact daily with their own ecological environments. This shows that behaviours displayed by children are not only influenced by their own traits, but also by the ecological contexts within which they are interacting daily (Lee, 2010).

2.4.3 Theoretical explanations for bullying in schools

2.4.3.1 Social capital theory

The term Social Capital refers to the benefits a child gains from social relationships. Children form and invest in social relationships hoping that these relationships will help them to reach their goals. Social Capital can be organised as either 'bonding social capital' or 'bridging social capital'. Bonding social capital consists of social ties (interpersonal relationships) between children who belong to a homogenous group which creates a sense of cohesion and belonging. Bridging capital consists of social ties children form with people and children outside the homogenous group, which creates a wider social network for them (Carney, Jacob, & Hazler, 2011; Evans & Smokowski, 2016; Jenkins & Frederick, 2017).

According to Evans and Smokowski (2016), the social ties that children form, provide them with four beneficial resources. Firstly, these social ties provide access to information about opportunities and choices which might not be available to those who are not part of the relationship. An example may be where children who formed social ties with the popular group may have information about after school activities where they can interact with and form stronger bonds with those peers with "higher status". Bonding with the "high status" group of children can be viewed as a form of social capital that increases a child's social standing and decreases the chances of being bullied by others (Evans & Smokowski, 2016).

Secondly, social ties formed with children with high status are beneficial as these individuals may be able to influence the child who holds power. An example may be where a child forms a relationship with the popular child's best friend which might provide protection for the child from falling victim of relational bullying. Similarly, a child who becomes friends with a child or children who are friends of a bully or bully group could increase the child's chances of being protected from becoming a victim of bullying (Evens & Smokowski, 2016).

Thirdly, social ties may provide children with social credentials. For example, if a moderately popular girl forms a relational tie with the first rugby team's captain, she increases her social capital. This dating relationship in turn connects the girl with all the resources of social credentials possessed by the rugby captain (e.g. respect, popularity and social ties to other rugby players) and might increase her chances of being incorporated into the popular group of girls. Increasing her social credentials may also provide protection for the girl from being bullied (Evens & Smokowski, 2016).

Lastly, social relationships reinforce a child's identity and self-worth. Being a member of a social group who share similar interests and values is a way for a child to obtain emotional support and affirmation. Thus, when children are part of a group, they are more likely to feel confident about themselves and the way they interact with other children. It also protects children from being bullied as they will not feel alone or unable to protect themselves against bullying (Evens & Smokowski, 2016).

Researchers found that children who are victimised by bullying often do not have friends, or sometimes only have a few friends and in turn are viewed by the bullies as having low social status and minimal social capital (Carney et al., 2011; Evans & Smokowski, 2016; Jenkins & Frederick, 2017). These researchers stated that even when these children have friends these friendships are not viewed as valuable by bullies and therefore do not provide social capital status to the victims as their friends are rejected by the popular group or bullies. Although having friends reinforces a child's self-worth, it may not increase their access to valuable information that could help improve their social credentials (Carney et al., 2011; Evans & Smokowski, 2016; Jenkins & Frederick, 2017). Thus, bullying behaviour often continues uninterrupted as the victim's friends may not be able to protect him or her and the child is unlikely to receive support or help from bystanders. Studies showed that only 10 to 20% of secondary victims intervened to protect children from bullies (Carney et al., 2011; Evans & Smokowski, 2015; Evans & Smokowski, 2016; Hawkins, Pepler, & Craig, 2001; Jenkins & Frederick, 2017).

According to Evans and Smokowski (2016), bullies find it easier to acquire social capital as they use their bullying skills and tactics as a means of gaining social capital in the form of social status. Bullies exert power over weaker children and place them in the category of children with low status. Although bullies are disliked by other children, they are often perceived as the popular children by their own peer group. Perceived popularity is found to indicate a child's social status and is a form of social capital as it indicates that peers think of

bullies as having power and social prestige. Having power in turn protects the bullies from becoming victims of bullying (Evans & Smokowski, 2016). Evans and Smokowski (2016) found in their study that victims may turn to bullying perpetration as a means of acquiring social capital, improving their social status, gaining power and ending their own victimisation.

In summary, Social Capital refers to the resources embedded in social ties formed by children and their peers. Both children, and the groups they belong to, benefit from the resources of information, social influence, social credentials and reinforcement of self-worth that is provided by the social ties. Victims of bullying are those children who have no friends or only a few friends. These friends cannot protect their friends as they are not viewed as powerful by bullies. On the contrary, bullies use bullying skills and tactics to gain social capital in the form of perceived popularity (Carney et al., 2011; Evans & Smokowski, 2015; Evans & Smokowski, 2016; Hawkins et al., 2001; Jenkins & Frederick, 2017).

2.4.3.2 Dominance theory

Evens and Smokowski (2016), described the Dominance Theory as centring on individual-based social hierarchies. They stated that these social hierarchies are formed through the mechanism of oppression, discrimination and injustice. The dominant groups in a school will oppress the less-powerful groups to form a hierarchy with one or a few dominant groups.

The desire to have power and dominance is found to be the central motivating factor that fuels bullying behaviour and bullies use intimidation and humiliation as a means of obtaining power in the school context (Evans & Smokowski, 2016).

Evans and Smokowski (2016) believed that children bully each other in their attempt to gain group and individual levels of social dominance. These bullies are then able to maintain their social status through engaging in on-going bullying behaviour. In other words, bullying perpetration is used by bullies as means of establishing and maintaining dominance.

Bullying in the school context is found to be a group process and the peer group dictates whether a bully or bullies can establish dominance (Carney et al., 2011; Evans & Smokowski, 2016; Jenkins & Frederick, 2017). For example, if the bully is respected or supported by his or her classmates, the bully or bullies will gain dominance and social power within the classroom. Further, if the bully or bullies become the leader or leaders of a group of admiring children, these children become the followers of the bully or bullies and may experience feelings of heightened power as a result of being followers of the powerful bully or bullies.

In conclusion, the Dominance Theory refers to children's desire for power and dominance and it is fuelled by on-going bullying behaviour by means of intimidation and humiliation.

2.4.4 Conclusion on theories related to bullying

In order to prevent a problem, it is important to understand why and how the problem occurs. The researcher included various theories to understand the phenomenon of bullying. Gaining a better understanding of bullying and how children become bullies is important for the planning of the intervention programme.

According to the developmental theory of Piaget (1952) (Cognitive Developmental Theory), Freud's Psychodynamic Theory (1949) and Bowlby's (1969) Attachment theory it is clear that it is important to take the child's developmental age and stage into consideration when studying the bullying phenomenon. These theories suggested that various factors may play a role in the child's life and these factors may in turn play a role in the child engaging in aggressive or bullying type of behaviour.

The Cognitive Developmental theory of Piaget (1952) regarded the Concrete Operational stage (ages 7 – 11 years) during which children develop the ability to show concern and empathy for other children and people, is an important stage for the development of bullying. During this stage children experience heightened emotions, are short tempered and easily aggravated. According to Piaget (1952) it is important for children to learn how to express their feelings as children in this stage set goals for themselves and if they are prevented by adults or children from reaching their goals, they might act in an aggressive manner towards these adults or children. Children who are emotionally competent will not show anger towards others when they are angry as they have developed the ability to express their feelings and emotions in a socially acceptable manner.

The psychodynamic approach of Freud (1949) mainly focused on the development of the inner world of individuals. Freud stated that there are always conflicting feelings, ideas and motivations within the individual's inner world which the individual tries to resolve in a conscious or unconscious manner. According to the psychodynamic approach, humans are not totally in control of the way they think about things, do things or their callings. The approach suggests that human beings are in a constant struggle with their drives and wishes in relation to what is expected by society.

Problem behaviour was believed to be caused by various factors and psychological ill health was conceptualised in terms of:

- experiences that has left a person or child traumatised
- unacceptable parts of the self which threatens to surface from the unconscious
- anxiety and depression that may be experienced as a result of intra-psychic conflict
- inappropriate use of defence mechanisms
- failure of the defence mechanisms to protect the individual against any harm
- the inability of individuals to work safely and successfully through a phase of development
- the inability of an individual to find a socially acceptable manner to express his or her instinctual drives
- an imbalance within the structure of the personality (Avis et al., 2004; Jessor & Jessor, 1977; Rotter 1954).

According to Avis et al., (2004) as a result of these factors, individuals have trouble expressing certain aspects of themselves and the ability to develop an inner sense of individuality and cohesiveness.

Freud viewed a "balanced person" as an individual who has been able to find a functional balance within the structures of his or her personality. He stated that a balanced person will experience as little conflict as possible and will deal with experiences in a conscious manner rather than constantly preventing experiences from surfacing into consciousness. Further, Freud described the balanced individual as a person who can make use of defence mechanisms in an appropriate way rather than in a way that will block out conscious experiences of the self. Moreover, a balanced individual is found to be in touch with past experiences and has negotiated the five stages of development satisfactorily. This means that as an adult the individual has not regressed back to any stage of development. A functional and balanced individual is thus someone who can love him or herself, others and is able to function and work in a socially-acceptable manner. The latency stage (ages five years to puberty) is relevant to this study as this is the age where learners enter school where they are exposed to expectations set by society.

According to the Attachment theory developed by Bowlby (1969) the attachment between infants and their caregivers play an important role in the development of an infant. Attachment is described as a gradual developmental process that evolves from birth. Bowlby included four phases of attachment to describe the evolvement of infant's attachment with their caregivers. The ability of an infant to grow independent from the primary caregiver depended on the

experience of an infant in each of the four phases (pre-attachment, attachment-in-the-making, clear-cut attachment and goal-corrected attachment). Bowlby explained that infants are born with levels of sociability, emotional styles and emotional reactivity to disturbances in their environment. This means that the way the primary caregivers socialised with the developing infant including how they reacted to their emotions determined the success of socialising with others and the ability to regulate their emotions. Poor responsiveness and quality care of the primary care-giver thus led to anxious attachment and dysfunctional emotional regulation.

With regards to the development of bullying behaviour or a child becoming a bully, Bowlby (1969) provided three reasons. Firstly, a child who grows up in an environment where the family engages in bullying type of behaviour, will view this type of behaviour as normal and therefore engage in his or her own type of bullying behaviour towards other children. Secondly, a victim of bullying might be raised in an overprotective home environment. Lastly, a child who was raised in a family with inconsistent parenting styles may engage in bullying type of behaviour. It was clear from the Attachment Theory, that the primary caregiver's behaviour and parenting styles played the most important role in determining whether an infant will grow up with the ability to form secure attachments with others and whether they will have the ability to regulate their own emotions and act in a socially-acceptable manner towards others.

The next section focused on the Social Cognitive Theory. In this theory, Bandura (1963) asserted that children and adolescents model their friends' behaviour such as bullying as they feel that they have formed part of a group or "sub-culture" where this type of behaviour is accepted. Lester et al. (2012) found that direct bullying perpetration is a stronger predictor of violence and anti-social behaviour in adolescence. Cyberbullying perpetration is a new form of deviation adopted by children. This is also viewed as problem behaviour as it is a new type of bullying behaviour that is practiced by children and adolescents making use of technological devices to bully their victims (Mitchell et al., 2007).

Further, the Social Cognitive Theory not only focused on learning through experience, but also included observational learning. This means that the result of a child behaving in a certain way may not purely be the consequence of experience but also includes how a child observed the behaviour of others and how the behaviour was rewarded. Bullying behaviour or any form of violent act is learned and maintained through environmental experiences either directly or vicariously as learning of aggression is controlled by reinforcement contingencies and punishment. This means that if a child is rewarded for any type of behaviour, that child

will likely continue displaying that type of behaviour. Thus, if a boy is rewarded or praised by his father for standing up for himself and beating other boys, this boy is most likely going to continue with the behaviour in order to impress his father (Bandura, 1963).

The fundamental premise of the Problem-behaviour Theory asserts that all human behaviour is a result of an individual's interaction with his or her environment. Problem behaviour includes behaviour that is frowned upon and viewed as socially unacceptable by society. The conceptual structure of this theory included three variables namely, perceived-environment system, personality system and behaviour system.

According to Bronfenbrenner's (1979) Social Ecological Theory, bullying behaviour should not be viewed as a result of individual characteristics, but it should be viewed as behaviour influenced by multiple relationships with people including family members, peers and neighbours. Various factors or levels were found which may influence a child's commitment to bullying behaviour. These levels included individual traits, the microsystem, the mesosystem, the exosystem and the macrosystem. Individual predictors included prior bullying victimisation, dominance, impulsivity, a child's attitude toward aggression and fun-seeking tendencies.

Other theories which described the phenomenon of bullying and the development of bullying behaviour in children were the Social Capital Theory and the Dominance Theory. Social Capital referred to the resources embedded in social ties formed by children and their peers. Both children and the groups they belong to benefit from the resources of information, social influence, social credentials and reinforcement of self-worth provided by social ties. As mentioned earlier, victims of bullying are children who have no friends or only a few friends. These friends cannot protect their friends as they are not viewed as powerful by the bullies. On the contrary, bullies use bullying skills and tactics to gain social capital in the form of perceived popularity (Carney et al., 2011; Evans & Smokowski, 2015; Evans & Smokowski, 2016; Hawkins, Pepler, & Craig, 2001; Jenkins & Frederick, 2017).

According to the Dominance Theory, bullying in the school context is found to be a group process and the peer group dictates whether a bully or bullies can establish dominance. For example, if the bully is respected or supported by his or her classmates, the bully or bullies will gain dominance and social power within the classroom. If the bully or bullies become the leader or leaders of a group of admiring children, these children became the followers of the bully or bullies and experienced feelings of heightened power as a result of being followers

of the powerful bully or bullies (Evans & Smokowski, 2016). The Dominance Theory referred to children as desiring power and dominance and it being fuelled by on-going bullying behaviour by means of intimidation and humiliation.

In the next section emotional intelligence and the theories included to gain a better understanding of the development of the term is discussed.

2.5 THEORIES OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The term "emotional intelligence" was used in the 1960's in an incidental fashion in literacy criticism and psychiatry (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004). The term was coined by Daniel Goleman in 1995). According to Mayer et al. (2004), emotional intelligence is the ability of a person or child to monitor his or her own and other's feelings and emotions, to understand the causes and consequences of their feelings and emotions, to label the feelings and emotions accurately, to express the feelings and emotions appropriately and to regulate the feelings and emotions effectively (Rivers, 2014; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Schokman, Downey, Lomas, Wellham, Wheaton, Simmons, & Stough, 2014). In order to address the concept and theory of emotional intelligence, it is important to understand the associated concepts, namely, intelligence and emotion.

According to Mayer et al., (2004) the term "intelligence" can be viewed as representing the capacity or ability of a person to carry out abstract thought and to learn and adapt to one's environment. Different types of intelligence are distinguished according to the kinds of information on which they operate. These types of intelligence include the verbal-propositional intelligence which involves the understanding of vocabulary, sentences and extended textual passages and the perceptual-organisational intelligence which involves the capacity of a person to see patterns, recognise missing parts in pictures and the ability to build puzzles. Mayer et al. (2004) stated that emotional information processing differs from language as it involves understanding of relationships among people. They proposed that individuals vary in their ability to process information of an emotional nature and in their ability to relate emotional processing to a wider cognition.

In the field of psychology, emotions are defined as a complex state of feelings that may result in physical and psychological changes that influence a person's thoughts and behaviour (Ekman, 1999; Hockenbury & Hockenbury, 2007; James, 1884). Hockenbury and Hockenbury (2007) stated in their book *Discovering Psychology*, that emotions involve three

components namely, subjective experience, physiological response and behavioural or expressive response.

Physiological response of emotions refers to the palpitating of an individual's heart during a fearful situation. A person or child may realise that emotions causes physiological reactions (Ekman, 1999; Hockenbury & Hockenbury, 2007).

Behavioural response of an emotion refers to the actual expression of the emotion being experienced. Humans spend a significant amount of time interpreting the emotions experienced by ourselves and others. The ability of a person or child to accurately understand the emotional expressions of others are known as emotional intelligence (Ekman, 1999; James, 1884; Mayer & Salovey, 2004; Mayer et al., 2004; Myers, 2004).

In 1972, psychologist Paul Ekman suggested that there are six universal emotions namely, fear, anger, happiness, sadness, surprise and disgust. Ekman expanded his list of emotions in 1999 and included contempt, excitement, embarrassment, pride, satisfaction, shame and amusement. Researchers believe that there are emotions experienced universally despite a person's culture but also, that the experience of an emotion can also be highly subjective (Ekman, 1999; Hockenbury & Hockenbury, 2007). People have unique labels for the different emotions they experience and each person's experience of an emotion remains unique. For example, the emotion anger may be experienced by one child or person as mild aggravation and as rage by another (Ekman, 1999; Hockenbury & Hockenbury, 2007 James, 1884).

Emotional intelligence also refers to a person or child's ability to recognise the meanings of emotional patterns and to reason and solve problems based on these patterns (Ekman, 1999; James, 1884; Mayer & Salovey, 2004; Mayer et al., 2004; Myers, 2004).

According to the Encyclopaedia of Applied Psychology there are five major models of emotional intelligence (Spielberger, 2004). These models include The Mayer-Salovey Model of Emotional Intelligence (Ability Model), the Bar-On Model, the Goleman Model, the Trait Model, and the Genos model. The Bar-On Model and the Goleman Model are also known as the Mixed Models of Emotional Intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 2004; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer & Salovey, 1990; Mayer et al., 2004; Spielberger, 2004).

2.5.1 The Mayer-Salovey model of emotional intelligence (Ability Model)

The Ability Model (Figure 2.4) is considered as the first formal model of emotional intelligence. The model views emotions and thoughts as working together in adaptive ways.

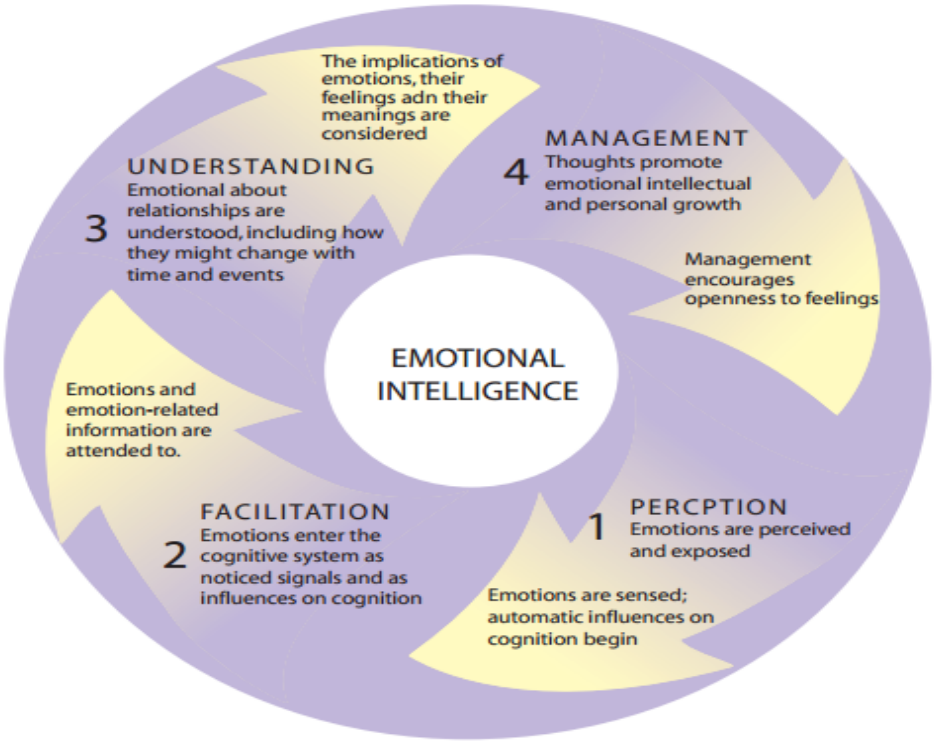


***Figure 2.4*. Four-branch Model of Emotional Intelligence.** Retrieved from https://iveybusinessjournal.com/publication

The term emotional intelligence is defined as a set of mental abilities and the processing of emotional information which forms part of and contribute to logical thinking and intelligence (Spielberger, 2004).

The original research supporting this model defined emotional intelligence as a person's or child's ability to perceive emotions, integrate emotions to facilitate thoughts, understand emotions and to promote personal growth. The Ability Model recognises that emotional intelligence includes four types of abilities. These abilities or branches include perception of emotion, emotional facilitation, understanding emotions and managing emotions (Daus & Ahkanasy, 2005; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer et al., 2004; Petrides & Furnham, 2000; Spielberger, 2004). These abilities or branches are ordered from basic to higher-order abilities which develop as a child matures.

- ***Branch 1 – Emotional Perception and Appraisal of Emotions (Identifying Emotions):*** Emotional perception is described as the ability to recognise emotion in the facial and postural expressions of others. It includes a person's or child's ability to be self-aware of their own emotions and to express their emotions and emotional needs accurately to others. Emotional perception also includes a person's or child's ability to distinguish between honest and

dishonest expressions of emotions (Mayer et al., 2004). People and children who can accurately appraise and express their own emotions are likely to be better understood by people around them and they will also have the ability to better understand the emotions of other people and children and develop empathy for them (Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

- ***Branch 2 – Emotional Assimilation in Thought (Using Emotions to Facilitate Thought):*** According to Mayer et al. (2004) emotional assimilation is a person's or child's ability to distinguish among different emotions. They found that individuals may differ in their ways of using their emotions.
- ***Branch 3 – Emotional Understanding and Analysis of Emotions:*** Mayer and Salovey (1997) described emotional understanding as a person's or child's ability to understand complex emotions such as feeling two emotions at once and the ability to recognise transitions from one to another. According to the model, emotions convey information. Happiness for example usually indicates a desire to build a relationship with other's whereas anger indicates a desire to attack or harm others. Mayer, Roberts and Barsade (2008) stated that the message of anger may mean that the person or child feels that they are treated in an unfair manner. The anger in turn may be associated with specific sets of possible actions such as attacking or revenge seeking (Mayer et al., 2008; Mayer & Salovey, 1997).
- ***Branch 4 – Emotional Management:*** Branch four reflects the person's or child's ability to manage their emotions which involves the rest of their personality. That is, people and children manage their emotions in the context of their individual goals, self-knowledge and social awareness (Averill & Nunley, 1992; Gross, 1998: Mayer & Salovey, 2004; Mayer et al., 2004). Managing emotions means that a person or child can manage and regulated their own emotions as well as those of others. According to Salovey and Mayer (1989, 1990) people and children differ in their ability to manage their emotions as well as to regulate the affective reactions of others. They found that emotionally intelligent people and children can place themselves in positive affective states and are able to experience negative affective states that may have insignificant destructive consequences. The model further predicts that emotionally intelligent children that grew up in a socially adaptive home environment, are non-defensive, are able to reframe their emotions effectively, choose good emotional role models, are able to communicate and discuss their feelings and emotions and develop expert knowledge in a particular emotional area such as social problem solving, aesthetics, moral feeling or spiritual feeling (Mayer et al., 2008).

Thus, the Ability Model views emotions as a useful source of information that helps people and children function in their social environment.

2.5.2 The bar-On model of emotional intelligence (Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence)

The Bar-On (2006) Model of Emotional Social Intelligence (Figure 2.5) is also known as the Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence. Bar-On (2006) defined emotional intelligence as the ability to understand yourself and others, relating well to other people and children, adapting to and coping with the immediate surroundings and being more successful in dealing with environmental demands. The model outlines five components of emotional intelligence which are further divided into five different areas which interact with each other. These areas or meta-factors is outlined in figure 2.5 and include intrapersonal (emotional awareness, assertiveness, independence, self-regard and self-actualisation), interpersonal (empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationships), adaptability (reality testing, flexibility and problem-solving), stress management (stress tolerance and impulse control) and lastly general mood which includes happiness and optimism (Bar-On, 2006; Stys & Brown, 2004).

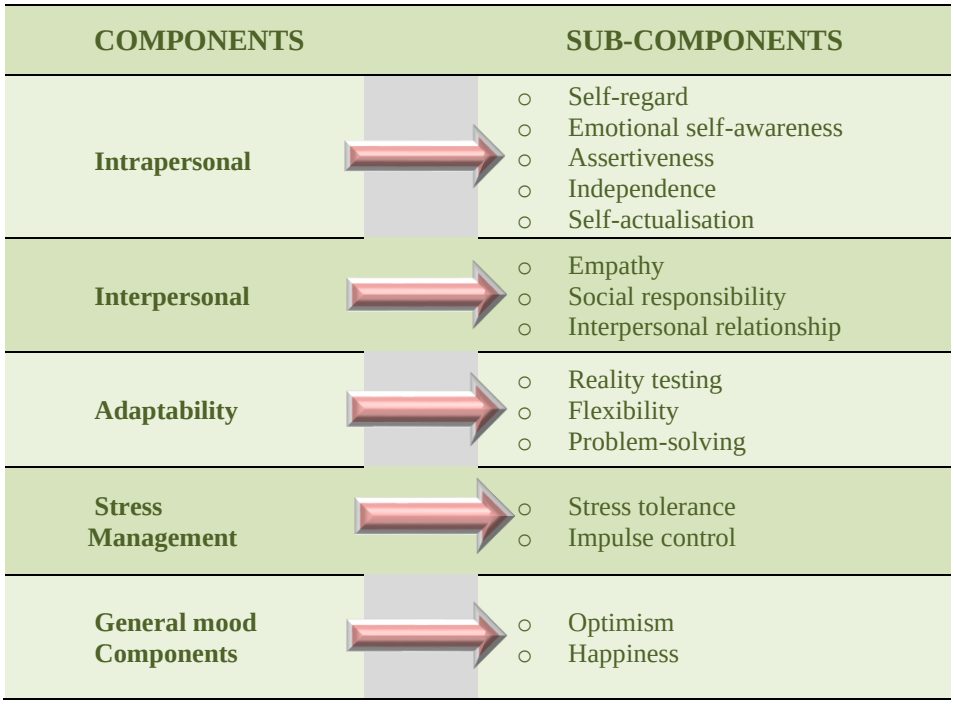


Figure 2.5. **Bar-On Mixed Model of Social Emotional Intelligence**. Adapted from http://www.cakitches.com

Intrapersonal – Self-awareness and Self-expression

This meta-factor governs a person's or child's ability to be aware of their own emotions and to understand their own strengths and weaknesses, and to express their feelings and

emotions in a socially acceptable manner (Bar-On, 2006). The first competency/skill or sub-factor related to the intrapersonal meta-factor is self-regard.

- *Self-regard* – This sub-factor is defined as a person's or child's ability to accurately perceive, understand and accept who they are as a person. According to Bar-On (2006), it is important for people and children to accept themselves and view themselves as good people. If an individual is able to respect him or herself, he or she will most likely accept who they are as individuals. In turn, this will assist them in accepting their positive and negative qualities as well as their strengths and weaknesses. An individual with good self-regard will feel fulfilled and satisfied with who they are and with life (Bar-On, 2006; Stys & Brown, 2004).
- *Emotional self-awareness* – This sub-factor is defined as the ability of individual's to be aware of and understand their emotions and emotional self-awareness refers to the ability of individuals to recognise their emotions (Bar-On, 2006).
- *Assertiveness* – This sub-factor is defined as the ability of individual's to constructively express their feelings and themselves (Bar-On, 2006). According to Bar-On (2006), assertiveness is composed of three basic components namely, the ability to express one's own feelings, the ability to express one's own beliefs and opinions and the ability to stand up for what a person or child believes is right and not to allow other people or children to take advantage of them. The next sub-factor is independence.
- *Independence* – This sub-factor is defined as a person's or child's ability to be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency of other people or children (Bar-On, 2006). Being independent is described as a person's or child's ability to be self-directed in their thinking and actions and to be free of emotional dependency (Bar-On, 2006). The last sub-factor is self-actualisation.
- *Self-actualisation* – This sub-factor is defined as a person's or child's ability to set personal goals and to drive themselves to achieve these goals in order to actualise their potential (Bar-On, 2006). Self-actualisation refers to a person's or child's ability to realise their potential.

Interpersonal – Social awareness and Interaction

This meta-factor of emotional intelligence relates to a people's social awareness, skills and interaction (Bar-On, 2006). It is concerned with a person's or child's ability to be aware of other people or children's feelings, concerns and needs and to be able to establish and

maintain co-operative, constructive and mutually satisfying relationships with others (Bar-On, 2006).

- *Empathy* – This sub-factor is defined as a person's or child's ability to be aware of and understand other people's or children's feelings. It describes the person's or child's ability to be sensitive to what, how and why people or children may feel the way they do. Being an empathic person or child means that you can emotionally read other people or children (Bar-On, 2006).
- *Social responsibility* – This sub-factor is defined as a person's or child's ability to identify with their own social group and to co-operate with other people and children. It is viewed as a person's or child's ability to demonstrate themselves as co-operative, contributing and constructive members of their social group (in their families, among friends, at work and at school) (Bar-On, 2006).
- *Interpersonal relationship* – This sub-factor is defined as a person's or child's ability to establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships and to be able to relate well to other people and children. Mutual satisfaction describes meaningful social interactions that are potentially rewarding and enjoyable for all people and children involved (Bar-On, 2006).

Stress management

This meta-factor comprises of Stress Tolerance and Impulse Control. This component relates to emotional management and control, and it governs a person's or child's ability to deal with emotions (Bar-On, 2006).

- *Stress tolerance* – This sub-factor is defined as a person's or child's ability to effectively and constructively manage their own and others' emotions. It is viewed as a person's or child's ability to deal with adverse events and stressful situations without getting overwhelmed by them (Bar-On, 2006).
- *Impulse control* – This sub-factor is defined as a person's or child's ability to effectively and constructively control their emotions and those of other people and children. It is described as a person's or child's ability to resist or delay an impulse, drive or temptation to act. It is a person's or child's ability to control their aggressive behaviour, hostility and irresponsible behaviour (Bar-On, 2006).

Adaptability

Adaptability as a meta-factor comprises of Reality Testing, Flexibility and Problem Solving.

This meta-factor relates to change management. It describes a person's or child's ability to adapt to personal and interpersonal change in their immediate environment (Bar-On, 2006).

- *Reality testing* – This sub-factor governs a person's or child's ability to objectively validate their own feelings and think with external reality. It involves experiencing things as they really are without excessive fantasising or daydreaming (Bar-On, 2006).
- *Flexibility* – This sub-factor describes a person's or child's ability to adapt and adjust to their own feelings, thinking and behaviour towards new situations. This involves adjusting their feelings, thoughts and behaviour to changing situations and conditions (Bar-On, 2006).
- *Problem solving* –This sub-factor governs a person's or child's ability to effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature. Problem solving entails a person's or child's ability to identify and define problems as well as to generate and implement potentially effective solutions (Bar-On, 2006).

General mood

General mood as a meta-factor comprises "optimism" and "happiness". It is closely related to self-motivation. General mood determines the ability of individuals to enjoy their lives and enjoy socialising with others. It also influences a person's or child's outlook on life and overall feeling of contentment (Bar-On, 2006).

- *Optimism* – This sub-factor is defined as a person's or child's ability to maintain a positive and hopeful attitude towards life even in the face of adversity. It represents a positive approach to a person's or child's daily living, and it is viewed as a very important factor in what people or children decide to do (Bar-On, 2006).
- *Happiness* – This sub-factor is defined as a person's or child's ability to feel content with themselves, other people and children as well as life in general. It is described as a person's or child's ability to feel satisfied with their lives, enjoy being in the company of other people and children and having fun (Bar-On, 2006).

Bar-On (2000), stated that individuals with high EQ are more successful in meeting environmental demands and has better stress management. He noted that a deficiency in emotional intelligence can lead to an individual experiencing a lack of success and the development of emotional problems. Bar-On (2000) considered emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to an individual's general intelligence which offers an indication of a person's potential to be successful in life (Bar-On, 2000).

Bar-On (2006) proposed that emotional intelligence primarily consists of being able to understand yourself and the people you interact with or those you do not interact with, to cope with daily environmental demands and to solve problems in a changing environment. He stated that emotional intelligence develops over time and it can be improved through therapy and training programmes (Bar-On, 2000).

2.5.3 Goleman's mixed model of emotional intelligence

Goleman's mixed model of emotional intelligence (Figure 2.6) outlines four main emotional intelligence constructs. These constructs include "self-awareness" which is considered a person's ability to read his or her own emotions and to recognise their impact while using gut feelings to guide their decision-making process. Secondly it includes 'self-management' which involves the ability to control one's emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances. The third construct, "social awareness", includes a person's ability to sense, understand and react to other people's emotions while comprehending social networks (Goleman, 1997; Mayer et al., 2008; Petrides et al., 2007; Stys & Brown, 2004). The fourth construct, "relationship management" entails a person's ability to inspire, influence and develop others while managing conflict.

Figure 2.6. **Emotional Intelligence Competencies**. Adapted from http://www.transgrowth.com (Goleman, 2001).

Goleman (1997) included a set of emotional competencies within each construct of emotional intelligence. He viewed these competencies as learned capabilities that must be worked on and developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman (1997) did not view these competencies as talents. Goleman (1997) suggested that an individual is born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies.

In the next paragraph, the four main emotional intelligence domains and the competencies are discussed in detail:

Domain 1 – Self-Awareness

According to Goleman (1998) it is important for a person to have self-awareness in order to understand other people or children. Self-awareness is also important in the development of empathy for another person. The competencies in the self-awareness domain include emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment and self-confidence (Goleman, 1995, 1997, 1998; Mayer et al., 2000; Petrides et al., 2007; Stys & Brown, 2004).

- *Competency 1 – Emotional Self-Awareness:* Emotional self-awareness is a person's or child's ability to understand their own feelings and why they are feeling the way they do. It is described by Goleman (1997), as a person's or child's ability to recognise their emotions and their effects on themselves and other people and children.
- *Competency 2 – Accurate Self-Assessment:* Self-awareness is described by Goleman (2002), as the key to a person's or child's ability to realise their own strengths and weaknesses. Goleman (1998) found that individuals who score high in accurate self-assessment seek feedback and can learn from their mistakes.
- *Competency 3 – Self-Confidence:* Self-confidence is described as a person's or child's ability to believe in their own capability to accomplish any task and effectively approach a task or a problem they are being faced with (Goleman, 1998).

Domain 2 – Self-Management

This second domain of emotional intelligence refers to a person's or child's ability to regulate distressing affects like anger and anxiety and to inhibit emotional impulsivity (Goleman, 1998).

- *Competency 4 – Emotional Self-Control:* According to Goleman (1998), emotional self-control is a person's or child's ability to keep their impulsive emotions and feelings under control and to retain from negative actions when they are being

provoked, when faced with opposition or hostility from other people or children or when working under pressure.

- *Competency 5 – Transparency:* Transparency is referred to as a person's or child's ability to keep their actions consistent with what they say. It includes a person or child communicating intentions, ideas, and welcoming openness and honesty even in difficult situations (Goleman, 1998).
- *Competency 6 – Adaptability:* Adaptability refers to a person's or child's ability to be flexible within a variety of changing situations and with various people, children or groups.
- *Competency 7 – Achievement Orientation:* According to Goleman (1998), achievement refers to a person's or child's ability to accomplish things through their efforts.
- *Competency 8 – Initiative:* Initiative refers to a person's or child's ability to identify a problem, obstacle or opportunity and to act. It is the ability to address current and future problems.
- *Competency 9 – Optimism:* Optimism is defined as a person's or child's ability to pursue goals despite obstacles and setbacks. Goleman (1998) viewed optimism as the key ingredient for achievement as it can determine a person's or child's reaction to unreasonable events or circumstance.

Domain 3 – Social Awareness

This domain of emotional intelligence includes two competencies namely, empathy and organisational awareness. These competencies determine how a person or child deals with relationships (Goleman, 1998).

- *Competency 10 – Empathy:* If a person or child has empathy for others, it means that they are aware of other people's or children's emotions, concerns and needs. An empathic person or child can read emotional currents and pick up non-verbal cues such as tone or voice and facial expressions (Goleman, 1998).
- *Competency 11 – Organisational Awareness:* According to Goleman (1998), organisational awareness is a person's or child's ability to understand and learn the internal and external power relationships within an organisation. It includes a person's or child's ability to identify real decision-makers and individuals with influence.

Domain 4 - Relationship Management

This domain of emotional intelligence contains competencies that have the most direct effect on interactions with other people (Goleman, 1998).

- *Competency 12 – Developing Others:* According to Goleman (1998), developing others means that people and children can understand other's developmental needs and assist in building their abilities.
- *Competency 13 – Inspirational Leadership:* This competency implies a person's or child's desire to lead others.
- *Competency 14 – Influence:* Influence refers to a person's or child's ability to persuade, convince or impact on others in order to gain support.
- *Competency 15 – Conflict Management:* Conflict management refers to a person's or child's ability to handle difficult individuals, groups of people or children or tense situations with diplomacy and tact. This competency entails a person or child finding the best solution for a problem they face (Goleman, 1998).
- *Competency 16 – Teamwork and Collaboration:* Teamwork and collaboration represent the ability of a person or child to work co-operatively with other people and children and be part of a team (Goleman, 1995, 1997, 1998; Mayer et al., 2008; Stys & Brown, 2004).

2.5.4 The trait model of emotional intelligence

The Trait Model of Emotional Intelligence was developed by psychologist Konstantin Vasily Petrides. Trait emotional intelligence is defined as a constellation of emotional self-perception and it evaluates how an individual perceives their own emotional abilities (Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007). These emotional abilities and the individual's perception of them affect their behaviour and perceived cognitive and behavioural abilities (Petrides et al., 2007). This construct of emotional intelligence can also be referred to as emotional self-efficacy as it resides in the perceptions of the individual rather than by any objective measure.

For the Trait Model, the role of self-perception affects the recognition and regulations of an individual's own emotions. The recognition and regulation of other individuals' emotions within the Trait Model construct involves the realisation that people can comprehend and affect other individuals in a natural way (Petrides et al., 2007).

In conclusion, the Trait Model Theory relies on the assumption that when an individual is able to recognise and use their own emotions and the strength of their personalities, they

will be able to understand and regulate the emotions of other individuals with whom they interact (Cherniss, 2010; Petrides et al., 2007).

2.5.5 The genos model of emotional intelligence

The Genos model of emotional intelligence is specifically designed for the corporate world and therefore it has some limitations for psychologists and counsellors. This model will be discussed briefly as it does not apply to this research study.

This model has seven dimensions of emotions and characteristics that comprise the concept emotional intelligence (Palmer, Stough, Harmer, & Gignac, 2009). It examines the concepts of decision making, behaviours and performance. The model holds that these three areas are affected by a person's emotions and may lead to negative issues in the workplace including reactiveness, disconnection, insensitivity and limited thinking (Palmer et al., 2009).

2.5.6 Conclusion on the theories of emotional intelligence

The term "emotional intelligence" was coined by Daniel Goleman (1995). Emotional intelligence is defined as the ability of a person or child to monitor his or her own and others' feelings and emotions, to understand the causes and consequences of their feelings and emotions, to label the feelings and emotions accurately, to express the feelings and emotions appropriately and to regulate the feelings and emotions effectively (Rivers, 2014; Schokman & Stough, 2014; Salovey & Mayer, 1990).

Two concepts are associated with the term "emotional intelligence" namely, "intelligence" and "emotion". Intelligence is viewed as a person's or child's ability to carry out abstract thought and to adapt to their environment (Mayer et al., 2004). Mayer et al. (2004) found that there are two types of intelligence which are distinguished according to the kinds of information on which they operate namely, verbal-propositional intelligence and perceptual-organisational intelligence. Emotional information processing differs from language as it involves the understanding of relationships among humans.

Researchers studying human emotions (Ekman, 1999; James, 1884; Mayer & Salovey, 2004; Mayer et al., 2004; Myers, 2004) view emotions as signals that convey regular and discernible meanings about human relationships (Mayer & Salovey, 2004). In the field of psychology, emotions were defined as complex states of feelings that may result in physical and psychological changes and may influence a person's thought and behaviour (Ekman, 1999; Hockenbury & Hockenbury, 2007). For an individual to be considered emotionally

intelligent, it is important to understand that although there are emotions that are universally experienced by people, each person's experience remains unique. Understanding emotions and the effect thereof is therefore important as it affects the way we think and behave towards ourselves and others.

According to Mayer and Salovey (1998), Bar-On (2006) and Goleman (1998), emotional intelligence with its different domains and competencies assists a person and child to understand their own and other people and children's emotions better, have better self-control, better problem solving and decision making, have empathy for others and have better self-control, even in difficult situations. To be successful in life, Mayer and Salovey (1998), Bar-On (2006) and Goleman (1998) stated that people and children must have effective awareness, control and management of their own emotions and awareness and understanding of other people's and children's feelings and emotions.

Five major models of EI have been identified namely, the Mayer-Salovey Model of Emotional Intelligence (Ability Model), Bar-On Model of Emotional Intelligence, Goleman Model of Emotional Intelligence, Trait Model and Genos Model.

The Mayer-Salovey or Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence viewed emotions and thoughts as working together in adaptive ways. The model defined EI as an individual's ability to perceive emotions, integrate emotions to facilitate thoughts, understand emotions and to promote personal growth. The model recognised four types of abilities namely, perception of emotion, emotional facilitation, understanding emotions and managing emotions.

The Bar-On Model of Emotional Intelligence or the Mixed Model defined EI as an individual's ability to understand themselves and others, relate well to others, adapt and cope with their immediate surroundings and be more successful in dealing with environmental demands. The model outlined five components of EI which was further divided into five different areas which interacted with each other. These factors included intrapersonal, which included emotional awareness, assertiveness, independence, self-regard and self-actualisation; interpersonal, which included empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationships; stress management, which included stress tolerance and impulse control; and lastly, general mood, which included happiness and optimism.

Bar-On considered emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence as equally important to an individual's general intelligence and potential to be successful in life.

The Goleman Mixed Model of Emotional Intelligence outlined four emotional intelligence constructs which included self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management. Goleman also included a set of emotional competencies within each construct of emotional intelligence. He viewed these competencies as learned capabilities that must be developed for an individual to achieve outstanding performance. The competencies included emotional self-awareness, accurate self-assessment, self-confidence, emotional self-control, transparency, adaptability, achievement orientation, initiative, optimism, empathy, organisational awareness, developing others, inspirational leadership, influence, conflict management and teamwork and collaboration.

The Trait Model of Emotional Intelligence was defined as a constellation of emotional self-perception and its function is to evaluate how individuals perceive their own emotional abilities. This model relied on the assumption that when individuals can recognise and use their own emotions, they will have the ability to understand and regulate the emotions of other individuals with whom they interact with.

The Genos Model of Emotional Intelligence was specifically designed for the corporate world. Although it was mentioned it will not be used in this study.

2.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

As the main aim of this study was to use emotional intelligence as intervention in preventing bullying behaviour from escalating or occurring in a school context, the researcher had to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon and comprehend its cause. Theories on bullying and emotional intelligence assisted the researcher in understanding bullying and how emotional intelligence can be used to develop an intervention programme. It is clear from the theories that various factors such as a child's age and stage of development, attachment with primary caregivers, systems within which they develop and their environment and other individuals can play a role in the child being at risk for becoming a bully.

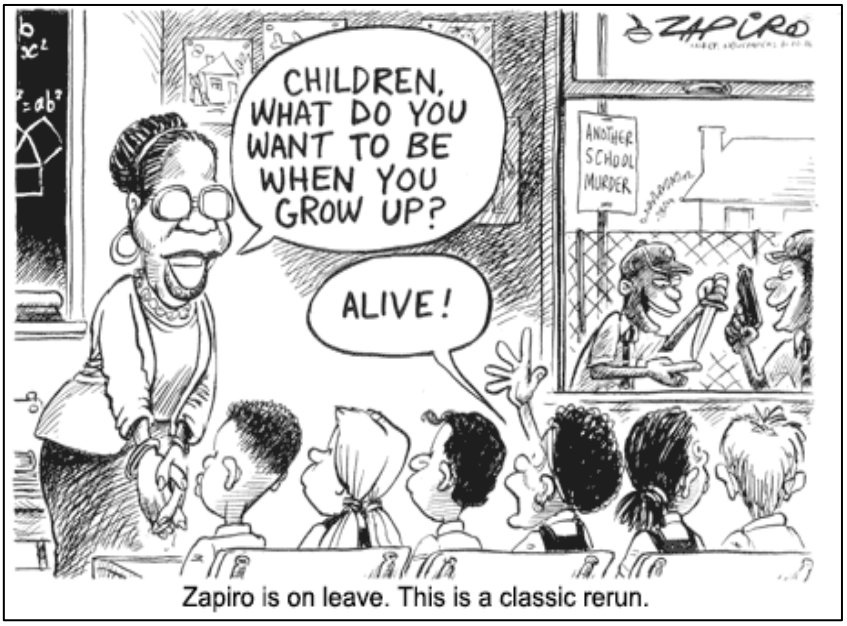
As stated above, it is clear that the manner in which a child forms, builds and maintains relationships with others is important. Emotional intelligence was found to assist in the process of building and maintaining relationships. The theories of emotional intelligence pointed out that the ability of an individual to accurately understand, recognise, express and label their own feelings will lead to the development of other competencies such as empathy, which are important for relating to other people and to understanding their needs, concerns and emotions.

In Chapter 2 the definitions of the different terms and concepts used in the study were provided and a discussion on the various theories of bullying and emotional intelligence was included. The next chapter focuses on previous literature on both bullying and emotional intelligence.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW ON THE CONCEPT BULLYING

3.1 INTRODUCTION



(Cartoon by City Press, 2013)

This chapter includes a literature review which considers what has previously been published on the topic of bullying.

Bullying behaviour has become more prevalent in the lives of South African primary school children (Juan, Zuze, Hannan, Govender, & Reddy, 2018; Laas, 2014). Prevention of bullying occurring in the primary school context is of utmost importance as research has shown that early prevention efforts are more effective. However, not having a clear understanding of what constitutes bullying behaviour, may lead to the inability to identify an act of bullying when it occurs. In order to adequately address bullying behaviour and to effectively plan for the prevention of the occurrence thereof involves a clear understanding of the phenomenon.

In the next section the concepts of aggression and bullying are defined, and a brief discussion is provided on the history of bullying. The factors which play a role in the development of bullying behaviour which are relevant to the study are also discussed.

3.2 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN AGGRESSION AND BULLYING

Aggressive behaviour has always been part of mankind and physical aggression amongst children remains a major problem (Tremblay, Nagin, & Japel, 2004). Aggression is defined as

behaviour intended to cause serious harm or pain (Hsien & Chen, 2017). A well-known form of aggression which is causing devastating problems in schools is known as bullying (Stuart-Cassel, Terzian, & Bradshaw, 2013).

Aggression is a familiar term in studying human behaviour (Buss, 1961). In humans, aggressive behaviour is viewed as violent acts to cause serious harm to another human (Mash & Wolfe, 2005; Sadock & Sadock, 2007). Humans are free in choosing how they will react to other humans who want to attack them. They may choose to avoid the attacker or to fight back and protect themselves (Sadock & Sadock, 2007). Aggression is a term that is used to describe verbal and physical harm. Verbal aggression includes insults or threats and physical harm includes acts such as punching or kicking. Although verbal aggression may not be regarded as serious as physical harm, because it does not cause physical harm, it is found to result in similar psychological consequences as in the case where a person suffered from physical aggression (Sadock & Sadock, 2007). Sadock and Sadock (2007) provided a classification system of aggression which has been organised around behaviour patterns. This means that behaviours that are similar in form have been assigned to the same category. For example, categories of aggressive behaviour include physical attacks against the self and others and verbal hostility such as sending threatening messages using email or sharing on social media (Mash & Wolfe, 2005; Sadock & Sadock, 2007).

The term "aggression" has not been defined in the DSM-IV-TR or the DSM-5. However, according to Sadock and Sadock (2007, p. 149) aggression is described in the DSM-IV-TR as "behaviour that intends to cause serious physical injury to others."

Literature showed that there are various disorders that may be associated with aggression. Some of these disorders include mental retardation, Attention Deficit Disorder (ADHD), Conduct Disorder (CD), adjustment disorders and childhood, adolescent or adult antisocial behaviour (Burns & Walsh, 2002; Mash & Wolfe, 2005; Sadock & Sadock, 2007).

In summary, aggressive behaviour is any intentional action with the goal to produce physical, psychological or social harm or injury to the individual it is directed towards. Aggression does not only have to include physical acts; it can also include non-physical acts. There are various aspects that can lead to a person acting in an aggressive manner. The best way to treat aggression is to teach a person basic social skills (Vahedi, Fathiazar, Hosseini-Nasab, Moghaddam, & Kiani, 2007).

Olweus (1978) defined school bullying as the repeated exposure to harmful actions of one or more students over a period of time. He stated that it can be direct by means of hitting, kicking, threatening and extortion, or indirect by spreading rumours or social which includes spreading rumours or purposeful social exclusion (Olweus, 1978).

The concept bullying can be found in the Children's Act (SA, 2005: Section 1) where child abuse is defined as bullying by another child (De Wet, 2016). Abuse is described as any form of harm or ill-treatment which is deliberately inflicted on a child and it includes assaulting a child or inflicting any other form of deliberate injury and bullying by another child (De Wet, 2016). Considering this, bullying of children by other children in the school context could amount to child abuse where the behaviour involves any form of harm or serious injury inflicted on a child by another child.

While there are many different definitions provided for the concept bullying, bullying can essentially be defined as aggressive behaviour by one or more individuals aimed at a weaker peer, primarily to assert power and control (Sansone & Sansone, 2008). However, although there is consensus in the academic field to define bullying as problematic or socially unacceptable behaviour, researcher have not yet reached agreement on the definition of bullying or aggression, as aggressive or bullying behaviour in one culture may not be considered bullying or aggressive type of behaviour in another.

For the purpose of this study bullying is defined as any socially unacceptable physical, verbal, or psychological acts, inflicted by one child on another, which is persistent and intends to cause serious harm and injury and creates a hostile or intimidating environment in the school context (De Wet, 2016; Olweus, 1978).

3.3 A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE CONCEPT OF BULLYING

Bullying is not a new or unfamiliar phenomenon to humans, especially for children in schools. In the past, children have been harassed physically, mentally and emotionally through different forms of bullying such as verbal threats or teasing. In contrast with bullying in the 18th to early 20th centuries, where bullying was described as physical harassment by strong school boys threatening weaker ones, bullying in the modern contexts now includes psychological and verbal threatening (Koo, 2007). In his article: '*A Time Line of the Evolution of School Bullying in Differing Social Contexts',* Koo (2007) stated that the meaning and forms of bullying in the modern context have been expanded and developed and now includes mean gestures, facial expression, gossiping and spreading rumours about a weaker person.

In the 1970's, Olweus conducted an in-depth study on bullying among children. His earliest work on bullying was published in 1973 in the Scandinavian country, Norway. In 1978 his studies on bullying were published in the form of a book titled *Aggression in the Schools: Bullies and Whipping Boys*. Olweus was also the first to investigate a systematic intervention against bullying in which he documented positive effects of what is now known as the Olweus Bullying Prevention (Vorster, 2002).

3.4 BULLYING AS A PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSTRUCT

According to the Dictionary of Psychology (1985, p. 617) there is no conclusive definition for psychology. The dictionary described psychology as a term that was created by scientists and philosophers from various fields of study to better understand the mind and behaviours of various organisms from the most primitive to more complex. Psychology does not include just one aspect or one field or describes one term or one phenomenon, it includes various fields and various aspects.

Since the development of the term, it has been defined in various ways. The first definition described psychology as the science of the mind, science of mental life and the science of behaviour. Reber (in the Dictionary of Psychology, 1985, p. 617) used a metaphor to describe the nature of the field of psychology. He stated that psychology is like an amoeba (one celled organism), it is relatively unstructured, but it is identifiable as a distinct entity with a peculiar mode of action which it sends out a projection of itself toward new techniques, identified problem areas, various theoretical models and other fields of science. Psychology incorporates all these aspects and then it slowly pulls itself in a clumsy way into another shape.

From a medical point of view, the term psychology is defined by the Medical Dictionary (1996, p. 570) as "the scientific study of behaviour and its related mental processes." Psychology is concerned with such matters as memory, rational and irrational thoughts, intelligence, learning, personality, perceptions and emotions and their relationship to behaviour.

According to Laas (2012), bullying is a difficult phenomenon to describe and define as children may differ. She stated that some children/learners may be more susceptible to become bullies and some children/learners may be more susceptible for being victims of bullying. When considering the definition of the term psychology, it is clear that it involves a study of behaviour and behavioural problems. Bullying is a type of behaviour a child decides to engage

in and as it causes damage, serious harm or injury to the victim – it is thus a behavioural problem.

As discussed earlier, acts of bullying are not limited to physical violence as it encompasses verbal abuse, name-calling, gossiping, cyberbullying and deliberate social exclusion. No matter what type of bullying a child engages in, bullying will have an adverse effect on both the bully's and the victim's mental and physical health. Laas (2012) argued that a child's sense of self-worth is tied into his or her "good name" and dignity and once these have been infringed upon, the child is affected psychologically. As bullying is a behavioural problem, which has a psychological effect on the perpetrator and the victim, it can be defined as a psychological construct.

When considering the etiology and causes of bullying, in most instances bullying has a psychological root or the source is psychological. Bullying can be described as psychologically motivated acts or behaviour (Laas, 2012).

3.5 ETIOLOGY OF BULLYING

The Mind of a Child

The mind of a child is a beautiful place.
An Eden where many things grow,
A garden of beauty where, sheltered by love
Grow flowers in a row upon row
The mind of a child is a wonderful place.
Where wishes and dreams are so real,
Where kittens and puppies and gingerbread men
Can talk and can actually feel.
The mind of a child is a mystical place
Where character grows like a tree,
And children become either better or worse
By actions of you, or me
(Herbert Parker, n.d.)

Naturally people are deeply empathetic towards others, however, often people and children do not act on this ability. The reasons for children to engage in aggressive or bullying behaviour

may vary (Baumeister, 2001). The theoretical overview discussed in Chapter 2 included the different views of various scientists, researchers and psychologists and the theories they developed to explain the reasons for children behaving aggressively and engaging in bullying behaviour. The factors that were found to play a leading role in the development of bullying behaviour included neurological (biological), genetic, psychological, social and environmental factors. These factors are discussed below. Note that although the factors have been categorised for this discussion, the factors are interrelated and cannot be clearly separated in practice.

3.5.1 Neurological factors

The biological factors that may play a role in the development of aggression and bullying includes neuroanatomical damage, neurotransmitters and the parts of the brain that are responsible for regulating aggression (Gibson, 2002; Stadler, Poustka, & Sterzer, 2010).

Bates (2015) stated that the act of bullying can cause long-term changes to the brain that can lead to cognitive and emotional deficits in child. It should therefore not be viewed as a development phase that a child must successfully work through in life.

Sadock and Sadock (2007) stated that although there may be a link between head injuries and aggression, it is important to note that researchers are still in the process of finding a link between physical abuse, head injury and aggression.

Studies indicated that neurotransmitters such as cholinergic and catecholaminergic seem to be involved in the enhancement of predatory aggression. Dopamine and serotonin levels of an individual are also found to play an important role in facilitating and mediating aggression. Dopamine is a neurotransmitter that plays important roles in the brain and body. The most important role of dopamine is to help the brain send signals to the body to function effectively. Dopamine also plays an important role in creating a positive mood and motivating an individual to want to function effectively (Sadock & Sadock, 2007). The neurotransmitter known as serotonin is found to play an important role as mediating factor in aggression. Researchers associated low levels of serotonin with depression and increased feelings of irritability which may lead to the inability of individuals to control their behaviour and emotions. A combination of depression and irritability may lead to aggression and violence (Mash & Wolfe, 2005; Sadock & Sadock, 2007).

The amygdala is the part of the brain that is responsible for the regulation of perceptions, reactions, aggression and fear. When individuals experience fear, the amygdala stimulates the brain in order to remember the details of the event that caused the feeling of fear so that the

same situation can be avoided in the future (Sadock & Sadock, 2007). Further, the amygdala is responsible for helping humans perceive and respond to danger. As the general reaction to fear is aggression it is important for humans to be able to control or inhibit aggressive tendencies. According to Davidson, Jackson, and Kalin (2000) the part of the brain that is responsible for controlling negative emotions and aggression is the prefrontal cortex (Davidson et al., 2000; Sadock & Sadock, 2007). Research conducted by Davidson et al. (2000) found the cerebral cortex to be less active in individuals who were arrested and convicted for murder. Violent crime and aggressive behaviour may thus be directly related to the inability of individuals to regulate their emotions.

3.5.2 Genetic factors

The genetic factors that play a role in aggressive behaviour include intelligence and chromosomal influences. Studies which focused on the correlation between mental disorders, level of intelligence and aggressive behaviour showed that individuals with a family history of mental disorders are more susceptible to mental disorders, are likely to have a low intelligence (IQ) level and more likely to engage in aggressive behaviours (Sadock & Sadock, 2007). Other studies which focused on behaviour and the influence of chromosomes concentrated on abnormalities in the X and Y chromosomes, particularly the 47-chromosome. Researchers paid special attention to the XYY syndrome. Studies described individuals with this particular syndrome as tall, of average intelligence and often involved in criminal behaviour.

3.5.3 Intrapersonal or psychological factors leading to aggression and bullying

In Chapter 2 the Psychodynamic Theory of Freud, Cognitive Developmental Theory of Piaget and the Attachment Theory of Bowlby were discussed. These theories described the psychological factors that may lead to the development of aggression and bullying.

The psychodynamic theory of Freud suggests that all human behaviour results from the Eros (life instinct) and the Thanatos (death force). Freud viewed aggressive and bullying type of behaviour as instinctive behaviour resulting from an individual's attempt to redirect the self-destructive death instinct away from themselves by acting in an aggressive or bullying manner towards other individuals (Avis et al., 2009; Freud, 1949; Sadock & Sadock, 2007).

From a developmental perspective, Piaget's theory of cognitive development suggests that during the pre-operational stage of development (ages 2 to 7 years), children develop social interactional skills. Children are thus able to make friends and maintain friendships. However,

according to the attachment theory of Bowlby (1969), the ability to positively relate to others requires a child to have formed secure attachments as infants. Research showed that insecure attachments as assessed through behavioural observational studies are related to involvement in bullying problems during the early school years of a child (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1969).

In a study conducted by Fanti and Georgiou in 2013, the aim of the study was to investigate the difference between bullies, victims and bully victims in terms of the quality of their relationship with their parents and the quality of parent-child relationship and bullying behaviour. The results showed a positive relationship between bullying and parent-child conflict. According to Fite, Greening, and Stoppelbein (2008) children coming from a home environment where parents act in an insensitive way towards their child and do not attend to their child's needs may result in the child demonstrating anti-social traits and unemotional characteristics. Antisocial traits may include lacking empathy. They concluded that children who engage in bullying behaviour are likely to have insecure relationships with their parents and less supportive and affectionate fathers.

According to Piaget (1952) children between the ages of 2 and 7 years can grasp negative actions and concepts such as bullying and lying. This means that children can engage in bullying behaviour and understand the message when the effects and consequences are discussed with them. Early discussion may prevent the early development of bullying behaviour (Laas, 2012).

As mentioned earlier, various psychological disorders including conduct disorders (CD and ODD) and attention deficit disorders (ADD and ADHD) may be related to the development of aggression and bullying in children. Laas (2012) described the psychological causes of bullying as conduct problems. Conduct problems can be divided into rule-breaking and aggressive behaviour. Rule-breaking behaviour includes behaviour such as smoking, abusing substances at school and vandalising school or teacher property. These types of behaviour usually put a child in conflict with the law. According to Laas, these types of behaviours are commonly seen as the cause of bullying if they are not stopped at an early stage or age (Laas, 2012). Aggressive behaviour is conflict that may be intentional, unintentional, direct or indirect and it can be acted out in many forms including physical, social and verbal. It can also be experienced in several ways including physical, emotional, psychological and mental (Laas, 2012).

Research showed that children who are constantly in conflict with the law or children who are constantly involved in fighting at school are at risk of developing psychological and psychopathological problems. A few psychological disorders which are internal causes of bullying resulting from constant and persistent rule-breaking and aggressive behaviour will be briefly discussed.

Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD):

Table 3.1 includes the criteria for a child to be diagnosed with ODD. Children who are diagnosed by a psychologist or psychiatrist with ODD, display age-inappropriate recurrent patterns of stubborn, defiant and hostile behaviour (Mash & Wolfe, 2005).

Table 3.1

DSM-5 Diagnostic Criteria for Oppositional Defiant Disorder (ODD)

DSM-5
A. A pattern of angry/irritable mood, argumentative/defiant behaviour, or vindictiveness lasting at least 6 months as evidenced by at least four symptoms from any of the following categories and exhibited during interaction with at least one individual who is not a sibling.
Angry/Irritable Mood
1) The child often loses his or her temper.
2) The child is often touchy or easily annoyed.
3) The child is often angry or resentful.
Argumentative/Defiant Behaviour
4) The child often argues with authority figures or, for children and adolescents, with adults.
5) The child often actively defies or refuses to comply with requisites from authority figures or with rules.
6) The child often deliberately annoys others.
7) The child often blames others for his or her mistakes or misbehaviour.
Vindictiveness
8) The child has been spiteful or vindictive at least twice within the past 6 months.
Note: The persistence and frequency of these behaviours should be used to distinguish a behaviour that is within normal limits from a behaviour that is symptomatic. For children younger than 5 years, the behaviour should occur on most days for a period of at least 6 months unless otherwise noted. For individuals 5 years or older, the behaviour should occur at least once a week for at least 6 months, unless otherwise noted. While these frequency criteria provide guidance on a minimal level of frequency to define symptoms, other factors should also be considered, such as whether the frequency and intensity of the behaviours are outside a range that is normative for the individuals developmental level, age, gender and culture.
B. The disturbance in behaviour is associated with distress in the individual or others in his or her immediate social context (e.g. family, peer group, work colleagues), or it impacts negatively on social, educational, occupational or other important areas of functioning.
C. The behaviours do not occur exclusively during the course of a psychotic, substance use, depressive, or bipolar disorder. Also, the criteria are not met for disruptive mood dysregulation disorder.
Specify current severity:
Mild: Symptoms are confined to only one setting (e.g. at home, at school, at work, with peers).
Moderate: Some symptoms are present in at least two settings.
Severe: Some symptoms are present in three or more settings (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 462).

Note. American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 462

It is important to note that a criterion can only be met if the behaviour of the child occurs more frequently than it is typically observed in other children of comparable age and developmental level. ODD cannot be diagnosed when the criteria for conduct disorder (CD) is met (Mash & Wolfe, 2005).

Regarding the etiology of ODD, Sadock and Sadock (2007) stated that children exhibit a range of temperamental predispositions to strong will, strong preferences or great assertiveness. They argued that parents who model extreme ways of expressing and enforcing their will on their children may contribute to the development of chronic conflict between the parents and their child. This may lead to children acting in the same manner towards other adults or other authority figures. Research studies showed that environmental trauma such as illness, chronic incapacity and mental retardation experienced in late childhood, can lead to oppositionalism in children as an effort to defend themselves against feelings of helplessness, anxiety and low self-esteem (Abulizi & Pryor, 2017; Sadock & Sadock, 2007).

The Psychoanalytic Theory of Freud implicates unresolved conflicts as fuelling aggressive behaviours directed towards authority figures. According to the Behaviourists, oppositionality is a reinforced and learned behaviour through which a child can exert control over a parent or other authority figures (Sadock & Sadock, 2007).

Conduct Disorder (CD):

Children who are diagnosed with CD can be characterised by repetitive and persistent patterns of severe aggressive and anti-social acts that involves the intent to inflict serious pain and harm, infringes the rights of others by using physical and verbal aggression, stealing and committing acts of vandalism (American Psychiatric Association, 2013). The DSM-5 included the following as main features of the diagnostic criteria for CD as indicated in Table 3.2.

Sadock and Sadock (2007) argued there is no definite cause for CD. However, according to Brower and Price, (2001) genetic factors such as damage to the frontal lobe and environmental factors including child abuse, poverty and parental substance abuse has been linked to conduct disorder in children. Kendler, Aggen, and Patrick (2013) also found a strong connection between genetic factors and the development of conduct disorder in children.

Table 3.2

DSM-5 Diagnostic Criteria for Conduct Disorder (CD)

DSM-5
A. A repetitive and persistent pattern of behaviour in which the basic rights of others or major age-inappropriate societal norms or rules are violated, as manifested by the presence of at least three of the following 15 criteria in the past 12 months from any of the categories below, with at least one criterion present in the past 6 months:
Aggression to people and animals
1) The individual often bullies, threatens, or intimidates others.
2) The individual often initiates physical fights.
3) The individual has used a weapon that can cause serious physical harm to others (e.g. a bat, brick, broken bottle, knife or gun).
4) The individual has been physically cruel to other individuals.
5) The individual has been physically cruel to animals.
6) The individual has stolen while confronting a victim (e.g. mugging, purse snatching, extortion and armed robbery).
7) The individual has forced another into sexual activity.
Destruction of property
8) The individual has deliberately engaged in fire setting with the intention of causing serious damage.
9) The individual has deliberately destroyed other's property (other than by fire setting).
Deceitfulness or theft
10) The individual has broken into someone else's house, building or car.
11) The individual often lies to obtain goods or favours or to avoid obligations (i.e. cons others).
12) The individual has stolen items of nontrivial value without confronting a victim (e.g. shoplifting, but without breaking and entering; forgery).
Serious violations of rules
13) The individual often stays out at night despite parental prohibitions, beginning before age 13 years.
14) The individual has run away from home overnight at least twice while living in the parental or parental surrogate home, or once without returning for a lengthy period.
15) The child is often truant from school, beginning before age 13 years.
B. The disturbance in behaviour causes clinically significant impairment in social, academic or occupational functioning.
C. If the individual is age 18 years or older, criteria are not met for antisocial personality disorder.
Specify whether:
Childhood-onset type: Individuals show at least one symptom characteristic of conduct disorder prior to age 10 years.
Adolescent-onset type: Individuals show no symptom characteristic of conduct disorder prior to age 10 years.
Unspecified onset: Criteria for a diagnosis of conduct disorder are met, but there is not enough information available to determine whether the onset of the first symptom was before or after age 10 years.
Specify if:
With limited pro-social emotions: To qualify for this specifier, an individual must have displayed at least two of the following characteristics persistently over at least 12 months and in multiple relationships and settings.

continues on next page …

DSM-5
These characteristics reflect the individual's typical pattern of interpersonal and emotional functioning over this period and not just occasional occurrences in some situations. Thus, to assess the criteria for the specifier, multiple information sources are necessary. In addition to the individual's self-report, it is necessary to consider reports by others who have known the individual for extended periods of time including, teachers, parents, extended family members and peers). **Lack of remorse or guilt:** The individual does not feel bad or guilty when he or she does something wrong (exclude remorse when expressed only when caught and/or facing punishment). The individual shows a general lack of concern about the negative consequences of his or her actions. For example, the individual is not remorseful after hurting someone or does not care about the consequences of breaking rules. **Callous – lack of empathy:** The individual disregards and is unconcerned about the feelings of others. The individual is described as col and uncaring. The person appears more concerned about the effects of his or her actions on himself or herself, rather than their effects on others, even when they result in substantial harm to others. **Unconcerned about performance:** The individual is not concerned about poor or problematic performance at school, at work or in other important activities. The individual does not put forth the effort necessary to perform well, even when expectations are clear, and typically blames others for his or her poor performance. **Shallow or deficient affect:** The individual does not express any feelings or show any emotions towards others, except in ways that seem shallow, insincere, or superficial (e.g. actions contradict the emotion displayed, can turn emotions on or off very quickly) or when emotional expressions are used for gain (e.g. emotions displayed to manipulate or intimidate others). ***Specify current severity:*** **Mild:** Few if any conduct problems in excess of those required to make the diagnosis are present, and conduct problems cause relatively minor harm to others (e.g. lying, truancy, staying out after dark without permission and other rule-breaking). **Moderate:** The number of conduct problems and the effect on others are intermediate between those specified in "mild" and those in "severe" (e.g. stealing without confronting a victim and vandalism). **Severe:** Many conduct problems in excess of those required to make the diagnosis are present, or conduct problems cause considerable harm to others (e.g. forced sexual activities, physical cruelty to humans and animals, use of a weapon, stealing while confronting the victim and breaking and entering. (American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 469)

Note. American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 469

There appears to be an overlap between the symptoms of ODD and CD. However, symptoms of ODD typically emerge two to three years before CD. Symptoms of ODD can develop at the age of 6 and symptoms of CD can develop at the age of 9. Since the symptoms for ODD emerge first, it is possible that they can be precursors of CD in some children. It is important to note that not all children with ODD will be diagnosed with CD as they get older. However, research indicates that most children who have been diagnosed with CD continue to display ODD features (Pardini & Fite, 2010). Regarding CD, research found that persistent aggressive and anti-social behaviour in childhood may be a precursor for anti-social personality disorder (APD) in adulthood. According to Mash & Wolfe (2005) more than 40% of children who have been diagnosed with CD develop APD as adults.

Attention-deficit / hyperactivity disorder (ADHD):

Research on the relationship between ADHD and bullying showed that some children who are diagnosed with ADHD are more likely than become bullies (Keder, Sege, Raffalli, & Augustyn, 2017). In a study conducted on the relationship between ADHD and bullying, researchers found that children diagnosed with ADHD are four times as likely as other children to become bullies (Carroll, 2008). The study included 577 fourth grade learners from Stockholm who were observed for a year. The researchers interviewed teachers, parents and children to determine which learners were likely to be diagnosed with ADHD. Learners who showed signs of ADHD were then evaluated by a neurologist who specialises in working with children to determine whether they could be diagnosed. The researchers also included questions about bullying.

The results showed that it is of utmost importance for children to be observed, especially how children who have been diagnosed with ADHD interact with their peers. The researchers argued that these children might display the symptoms of ADHD as a result of being bullied themselves. This means that not only can children who display symptoms of ADHD result in bullying others as a result of their learning difficulties, but children who are being bullied can also display symptoms of ADHD and therefore professionals should be careful when a diagnosis for ADHD is made (Carroll, 2008). The diagnostic criteria for a child to be diagnosed with ADHD is summarised in Table 3.3.

According to Mash and Wolfe (2005), children who are diagnosed with ADHD experience many problems with their peers. They described children with ADHD as bothersome, stubborn, socially awkward and socially insensitive. These children are often described by their peers as socially conspicuous, loud, intense and quick to react. As a result of their behaviour and how they are experienced by their peers, these children are often disliked by others, rejected by others, have few friends and have difficulty regulating their emotions. The difficulties they experience with regulating their behaviour and their emotions and the aggressiveness that often accompanies ADHD lead to conflict with their peers (Mash & Wolfe, 2005).

Although there may be many factors that may lead to the development of ADHD, current research suggests that ADHD as a disorder may result from genetic and biological factors. Mash and Wolfe argued that as ADHD is a complex and chronic disorder of the brain and any explanation that focuses on one cause is inadequate. The primary approach for treating ADHD combines stimulant medication, parent training and educational intervention (Mash & Wolfe, 2005).

Table 3.3

DSM-5 Diagnostic Criteria for Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)

DSM-5
A. A persistent pattern of inattention and/or hyperactivity-impulsivity that interferes with functioning or development, as characterised by 1 and or 2:
Inattention: Six (or more) of the following symptoms have persisted for at least 6 months to a degree that is inconsistent with developmental level and that negatively impacts directly on social and academic/occupational activities. Note: The symptoms are not solely a manifestation of oppositional behaviour, defiance, hostility, or failure to understand tasks or instructions. For older adolescents and adults (age 17 and older), at least five symptoms are required.
a) Often fails to give close attention to details or makes careless mistakes in schoolwork, at work, or during other activities (e.g. overlooks or misses details, work is inaccurate).
b) Often has difficulty sustaining attention in tasks or play activities (e.g. has difficulty remaining focused during lectures, conversations or lengthy reading).
c) Often does not seem to listen when spoken to directly (e.g. mind seems elsewhere even in the absence of any obvious distraction).
d) Often does not follow through on instructions and fails to finish schoolwork, chores, or duties in the workplace (e.g. starts tasks but quickly loses focus and is easily side-tracked).
e) Often has difficulty organising tasks and activities (e.g. difficulty managing sequential tasks, difficulty keeping materials and belongings in order, messy, disorganised work, has poor time management, fails to meet deadlines).
f) Often avoids, dislikes, or is reluctant to engage in tasks that require sustained mental effort (e.g. schoolwork or homework, for older adolescents and adults, preparing reports, completing forms, reviewing lengthy papers).
g) Often loses accessories necessary for tasks or activities (e.g. school materials, pencils, books, tools, wallets, keys, paperwork, eyeglasses, mobile telephones).
h) Is often easily distracted by extraneous stimuli (for older adolescents and adults, may include unrelated thoughts).
i) Is often forgetful in daily activities (e.g. doing chores, running errands, for older adolescents and adults, returning calls, paying bills, keeping appointments.
Hyperactivity and impulsivity: Six (or more) of the following symptoms have persisted for at least 6 months to a degree that is inconsistent with developmental level and that negatively impacts directly on social and academic/occupational activities.
Note: The symptoms are not solely a manifestation of oppositional behaviour, defiance, hostility, or a failure to understand tasks or instructions. For older adolescents and adults (age 17 and older), at least five symptoms are required.
a) Often fidgets with or taps hands or feet or squirms in seat. b) Often leaves their seats when remaining seated is expected (e.g. leaves his or her place in the classroom, in the office or other workplace, or in other situations that require remaining in place).
c) Often runs about or climbs in situations where it is inappropriate. (Note: In adolescents and adults, may be limited to feeling restless).
d) Often unable to play or engage in leisure activities quietly.
e) Is often "on the go" acting as if driven by a car (e.g. unable to be or uncomfortable being still for extended time, as in restaurants, meetings, may be experienced by others as being restless or difficult to keep up with).
f) Often talks excessively.
g) Often blurts out an answer before a question has been completed (e.g. completes people's sentences, cannot wait their turn in a conversation).

continues on next page …

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h) Often has difficulty waiting his or her turn (e.g. while waiting in line).
i) Often interrupts or intrudes on others (e.g. butts into conversations, fames or activities, may start using other people's things without asking or receiving permission, for adolescents and adults, may intrude into or take over what others are doing).
B. Several inattentive or hyperactive-impulse symptoms were present prior to age of 12 years.
C. Several inattentive or hyperactive-impulsive symptoms are present in two or more settings (e.g. at home, school or work, with friends or relatives, in other activities.
D. There is clear evidence that the symptoms interfere with, or reduce the quality of social, academic and occupational functioning.
E. The symptoms do not occur exclusively during the course of schizophrenia or another psychotic disorder and are not better explained by another mental disorder (e.g. mood disorder, anxiety disorder, dissociative disorder, personality disorder, substance intoxication or withdrawal).
Specify whether:
Combined presentation: If both Criterion A1 (inattention) and Criterion A2 (hyperactivity-impulsivity) are met for the past 6 months.
Predominantly inattentive presentation: If Criterion A1 (inattention) is met but Criterion A2 (hyperactivity-impulsivity) is not met for the past 6 months.
Predominantly hyperactive-impulsive presentation: If Criterion A2 (hyperactivity-impulsivity) is met and Criterion A1 (inattention) is not met for the past 6 months.
Specify if:
In partial remission: When full criteria were previously met, fewer than the full criteria have been met for the past 6 months, and the symptoms still result in impairment in social, academic or occupational functioning.
Specify current severity:
Mild: Few, if any, symptoms in excess of those required to make the diagnosis are present, and symptoms result in no more than minor impairments in social or occupational functioning.
Moderate: Symptoms or functional impairment between "mild and severe" are present.
Severe: Many symptoms in excess of those required to make the diagnosis, or several symptoms that are particularly severe, are present, or the symptoms result in marked impairment in social or occupational functioning.

Note. American Psychiatric Association, 2013, p. 59

3.5.4 Interpersonal or socio-environmental factors leading to aggression and bullying

In Chapter 2, the ecological systems theory developed by Bronfenbrenner (1979) suggested how the environments children are exposed to, whether directly or indirectly may reinforce aggressive and bullying behaviour demonstrated by children. Bronfenbrenner (1997) divided the environment into five levels including, the microsystem which is the immediate context that has a direct effect on a child's development, the mesosystem which is a system of microsystems formed when a child moves into a new setting, the exosystem which includes the social settings, the macrosystem which includes the laws, values, traditions and customs of society and the chronosystem which is a dimension of time.

According to Bronfenbrenner (1979), bullying behaviour cannot be viewed as a result of individual characteristics but should rather be viewed as influenced by multiple relationships formed with family members, peers and neighbours.

The microsystem was labelled by Bronfenbrenner (1979) as the first layer as it included all the structures a child encountered on a daily basis. Examples of these structures include the family members, teachers, peers and life in the school context (Shetgiri, Lin & Flores, 2012). International studies on bullying prevention emphasised the impact a child's family may have on the ability of the child to interact with other individuals, their teachers and peers and their ability to develop and maintain relationships (Baumrind, 1991; Bronfenbrenner, 1990; Bowers, Smith, & Binney, 1994; Engels, Finkenauer, Meeus, & Dekovic, 2001; Olweus, 1993; Rigby, 1994; Rigby, 2002; Rigby, 2007).

Whether a child will engage in bullying behaviour at school can be related to how well a family is functioning and whether bullying behaviour is practised and rewarded (Adegboyega, Okesina, & Jacob, 2017; Bowers et al., 1994; Rigby, 2007). As evident from the social cognitive theory of Bandura (1963) children learn how to behave by observing the people around them. Children, who are raised in a home environment where they observe their parents engaging in bullying behaviour, may view this behaviour as acceptable and will thus behave in this manner in other contexts and towards other children (Bandura, 1963; Bowers et al., 1994; Georgiou & Stavrinides, 2012; Shields & Cicchetti, 2001).

Parenting styles may also play a role in children engaging in bullying behaviour. Studies conducted by Rigby (1994) in Australia, Baldry and Farrington (2000) in Italy and Espelage et al. (2000) in the United States showed that children who are raised by parents who choose an authoritarian as opposed to an authoritative or democratic parenting style are more likely to engage in bullying behaviour. In a study led by the University of Warwick in 2013, the researchers found that the likelihood of children falling victim to bullying or becoming bullies are reduced when parents choose an authoritative parenting style where opportunities are created for a child to learn how to solve problem situations constructively in a warm, supportive atmosphere with clear boundaries. In contrast, where an authoritarian parenting style characterised by harsh, negative parenting is practised, the likelihood of a child becoming a bully, increases (Lereya, Samara, & Wolke, 2013).

Olweus (as cited in Laas, 2012) identified four factors that may lead to bullying behaviour in a child. The first factor is the emotional attitude of the primary caregivers towards the child.

When a child is raised in an environment where the primary caregivers are always negative or aggressive, the child may believe that this is the way that one should behave towards others. This may then increase the risk of a child acting in a negative or aggressive manner towards others.

Secondly, the extent to which the primary caregivers allow their child to behave in a negative and aggressive manner can result in the child behaving the same way when they are older. It is therefore of utmost importance for primary caregivers to set boundaries in order to avoid allowing the level of their child's aggression to increase. Thirdly, if parents use aggressive child-rearing methods such as corporal punishment, it may lead to heightened aggression in a child. Finally, the temperament of a child plays an important role in determining whether the child will continue to behave in a socially unacceptable manner when they are older.

In the school environment, factors such as too little supervision, overcrowded classes, absence of clear rules and boundaries set by the teacher and the school, disciplinary measures that are regarded as unfair or too severe by the learners, an ineffective or invisible principal and an authoritarian style by the teachers may be some of the factors that can lead to aggressive and bullying behaviour (Rigby, 1996). Moreover, the extent to which a school employs competitive models to promote educational aims may have a harmful effect on children and in turn can contribute to bullying behaviour. Children who experience themselves as inferior may resort to bullying to experience a sense of self-worth.

In South Africa, unique contextual factors such as violence within the communities overflowing into schools have an impact on the management of bullying and on the prevention and intervention thereof (Kruger, 2013). The specific community in which the child is located may also cause the child to turn into a bully. The attitude of the community can serve to promote or discourage bullying in children. Social stereotyping and prejudice in some communities legitimise hatred and abuse towards a particular cultural group (Rigby, 1996).

Visual media plays a crucial role in this regard as the glorification of violence and the frequent demonstration of hero-like characters that dominate over other people and solve problems by using force, are very common features of many television programmes.

According to Espelage (2014), parent and guardian involvement and communication with teachers and peers may affect children engaging in bullying behaviour. A lack of parent involvement in the child's school may contribute to a child engaging in bullying behaviour.

Children who consider communication between parents and teachers as important may develop feelings of neglect if their parents fail to communicate with their teachers. A child may express this feeling by acting in a socially unacceptable manner towards those children whose parents do communicate with their teachers. However, some children do not want their parents to show an interest in their education. These children in turn may become suspicious or feel betrayed by their parents, and when they witness other parents talking to their teacher, they may think that they are the topic of discussion. The result is that this child will then target the child of the actively involved parents and behave in a socially unacceptable manner towards them (Espelage, 2014).

The exosystem is the layer which defines the larger social system in which a child may not function directly. A child is not directly involved in his or her parent's work environment. However, when a parent must work late and has little time to spend with his or her child, the child may feel neglected and, in turn, take out his or her anger on a peer or sibling (Berk, 2000).

Several social factors have been identified that may contribute to aggression. These include frustration, direct provocation and exposure to media violence. According to the frustration-aggression theory developed by John Dollard, Neal Miller, Leonard Doob, Mowrer, and Sears in (1939) aggressive behaviour stems from frustration. Dollard noted that frustration only plays a role in the development of aggression when an individual experience the frustration as intense. Secondly, he stated that frustration may only lead to the facilitation of aggression when it is perceived by an individual as being arbitrary or illegitimate (Barker, Dembo & Lewin, 1941; Dollard et al., 1939; Sadock & Sadock, 2007).

Barker et al. (1941) stated that goal achievement and frustration are closely related. When individuals, feel that they are unable to achieve specific goals, their frustration will most likely lead to acting in an aggressive manner. In a study conducted by Barker et al. (1941) toys were placed behind a screen where children could see them. The toys were only given to the children after some time passed. The researchers noted that the children then played with the toys in a destructive manner.

Aggression may also often result from verbal or physical provocation. According to Harris and Garth in (1993) and Harris and Petrie, (2003), individuals who are the victims of verbal or physical aggression will seldom attempt to avoid conflict by walking away from their attacker. Instead, the victim is often found to reciprocate in a more aggressive manner towards the perpetrator. This latter finding – that victims often tend to act in a more aggressive manner

towards the individual who is perceived as behaving in a manner that may cause harm – may explain why aggression may often escalate from mild taunts to stronger insults (Harris & Garth, 1993; Harris & Petrie, 2003; Sadock & Sadock, 2007).

In contrast to the psychoanalytic approach which ascribes the cause of aggression to instinctive drives, cognitive theorists such as Bandura (1977) who pioneered the social learning theory believed that aggressive behaviour is a result of imitation and experience. Bandura pointed out that children learn behaviour by observing and imitating the behaviour of others and will particularly repeat behaviour that is rewarded.

Media violence can be closely linked to the learning theory of Bandura as media violence can influence the behaviour of an individual through modelling. Research indicates that children who have been repeatedly exposed to violence and abuse and who are then exposed to media violence may develop aggressive fantasies. These fantasies may then be acted out to transfer their pain onto others (Anderson & Bushman, 2001; Bandura et al., 1963; Sadock & Sadock, 2007).

Environmental factors such as air pollution, noise and crowding were also identified. Individuals who are sensitive to certain odours may become irritable. If the individual is not able to remove him or herself from the environment where the odour is released, the feeling of irritability can escalate and an individual can become more aggressive (Evans & Smokowski, 2016; Sadock & Sadock, 2007). Whether at work or at home, several studies reported that when an individual is exposed to elevated noise, it may lead to an individual behaving in an aggressive manner (Krahé, 2013; Sadock & Sadock, 2007). Literature indicates that overcrowding may lead to elevated levels of aggression and often depression in individuals (Freedman, 1972; Sadock & Sadock, 2007).

Sadock and Sadock (2007) identified three situational factors that may lead to the development of aggression. These three factors include heightened physiological arousal, sexual arousal and pain. Sadock and Sadock explained that heightened arousal that stems from vigorous exercise or exposure to provocative films may enhance overt aggression. They stated that the effects of sexual arousal on aggression depend strongly on the erotic materials used by individuals to induce such reactions, and the nature of the reactions. Pain as a situational factor includes any physical pain experienced by an individual. When this pain becomes unbearable for the individual to deal with, it may arouse an aggressive drive leading the individual wanting

to harm or injure another individual. The target or victim selected by the individual experiencing the pain may not even be involved in the cause of the discomfort or pain.

From the above discussion, it is clear that various factors may play a role in the development of aggression and bullying. Children who are identified as bullies can be classified under the type or form of bullying they choose to use. In the next section, the different forms of bullying used by primary school learners are discussed.

3.6 DIFFERENT TYPES OF BULLYING IN THE SCHOOL

When people hear the word "bullying", they immediately think of boys kicking, hitting and punching one another. However, physical bullying is only one type of bullying used by children. Studies showed that children use many different forms of bullying to inflict serious injury or harm to their targeted victim. The nature of the selected behaviour and the motivation for the form may differ, but the characteristics will be present in each bullying case (Adams, 2012).

Various factors play a role in describing the different types of bullying. The first factor involves the type of behaviour selected by an individual to harm another. The types of behaviour can include verbal, non-verbal, physical, social and emotional bullying (Gordon, 2016).

Verbal bullying may include teasing, name-calling, inappropriate sexual comments, taunting and threatening to cause harm, spreading rumours on social media or at school, vulgar language and whistling (De Wet, 2010). Bullying may not always involve the immediate physical harm or injury of a person; it can also be done non-verbally. Non-verbal bullying can include imagery and gestures such as graffiti of a sexist or racist nature, drawings, pictures or cartoons that are sexually objectifying. Other forms of non-verbal bullying include spying, leering, stalking, winking and rude or obscene gestures towards another person (De Wet, 2010; Gordon, 2016).

Physical bullying is viewed as the most common type of behaviour used by individuals to harm or injure another individual. Physical bullying refers to hurting another child's body or possessions. Physical bullying includes hitting, kicking, punching, spitting, tripping, pushing, biting, hair pulling, poking, strangling, taking or breaking someone's belongings or property and making mean or rude gestures (De Wet, 2010; Straus, 2011).

Another form of bullying which involves damaging the reputation or relationships of another individual is known as social or relational bullying. Bullies who engage in this form of

bullying will intentionally exclude an individual from a social group and will also encourage other's not to include the individual in their social group (De Wet, 2005).

Emotional bullying is often referred to as psychological bullying and it includes terrorising, extorting, humiliation, blackmailing, manipulation of friendships and peer pressure (De Wet, 2005, 2010).

As stated, verbal, non-verbal, physical, social and emotional bullying can occur in person or online. The second factor to consider is therefore the setting. Bullying can occur in person or online. In-person bullying means that the bully chooses to come face to face with the victim. Online bullying is also known as cyberbullying (Smith, Mahdavi, Carvalho, & Tippet, 2006). Ybarra and Mitchell (2004) defined cyberbullying as an intentional mean and overt act of aggression towards another person. Research conducted on the different forms of bullying that occur in the school context found that cyberbullying is considered one of the most dangerous forms of bullying as it may not happen at school. This may lead to the bully not being caught and the victim not receiving any form of help or protection. Teachers reported that victims often refrain from reporting the bullying (Eden, Heiman, & Olenik-Shemesh, 2012). Cyber, Internet or technological bullying is described as an intentional mean and overt act of aggression towards another person. Cyberbullying takes place when children use electronic technology (computers, laptops, cell phones, tablets, iPads) to gain power over their victim. Other communication tools such as social media sites (Facebook, Instagram and Snapchat), text messages, chatrooms and websites are used for cyberbullying purposes (Burton & Mutongwizo, 2009; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004).

Bullying behaviour conjures up visions of the traditional schoolyard bully and the vulnerable victim. However, bullying is no longer limited to person to person encounters, having come to include cyberbullying, which takes place indirectly by means of electronic devices (Olweus, 2012; Smit, 2015). Cyberbullying is viewed as a fairly new type of bullying that is used by learners to hurt other learners on a psychological level. It is defined as voluntary and repeated assaults against a person through electronic means (Berger, 2007; Edur-Baker, 2010; Li, 2005; Menesini & Salmivalli, 2016; Olweus, 2012).

Raskauskas and Stoltz (2007) described cyberbullying as a means of indirect aggression where children use electronic media to insult, threaten, taunt, harass or intimidate other children. The phenomenon is classified as relational or indirect aggression as it as a deliberate attempt to inflict direct or indirect harm. Cyberbullying can consist of any of the following actions committed by a child or groups of children against another child or other groups: threats

of violence, hate speech, harassment, peer pressure, bribery, psychological abuse and extortion (Raskauskas & Stoltz, 2007). Willard (2005) compiled a list of seven forms and actions of cyberbullying which is summarised in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4

Willard's Seven Ways of Cyberbullying

FORM	ACTION
• Harassment	A child will repeatedly send another child nasty, mean or insulting messages.
• Denigration	A child will send or post gossip or rumours about another child to damage the child's reputation or friendships.
• Flaming	Involves online fights using electronic devices to send angry messages.
• Impersonation	A child may pretend that he or she is someone else and post or send material to get the victim into trouble by their friends.
• Outing	A child may share the victim's secrets online.
• Trickery	A child may talk to the victim pretending that he or she cares about the person and then reveals the victim's secrets by sharing or posting it online.
• Exclusion	A child or group of children may intentionally exclude another child or the victim from an online group.
• Cyber-stalking	A child may repeatedly harass another child online.

Note. Adapted from http://cybersafe-kids.com

The third factor involves the means of bullying – which can be direct or indirect. Direct bullying occurs when the bully is directly involved in the bullying of the victim, whereas indirect bullying involves inflicting harm by damaging the victim's reputation. When the bully chooses indirect bullying, he or she involves other individuals. This occurs usually when the bully wants to insult the victim by spreading rumours (De Wet, 2005).

The fourth factor is visibility. When bullying behaviour is easy to see it is called overt and when it is hidden it is called covert. Overt bullying involves physical and verbal bullying. This type of bullying behaviour is better known as traditional bullying. Traditional bullying is primarily defined as encompassing physical acts such as kicking, hitting, pushing, verbal aggression such as name-calling and abusive language or relational aggression such as spreading rumours or socially excluding peers (Varjas, Henrich, & Meyers, 2009). Traditional bullying and cyberbullying are similar in terms of their form and technique however, there are still many identifiable differences between them. The similarities between traditional and

cyberbullying will be discussed briefly under the following headings: bullying, effects, occurrence and power dynamic.

Bullying – The main element that traditional and cyberbullying have in common is bullying. In both cases bullies use an individual or victim. The bullies are aware of their actions and in both cases their intentions are to cause harm (Donegan, 2012; Slonje & Smith, 2008; Olweus, 2012; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004).

Effects of bullying – Individuals who are bullied usually experience depression, anxiety and loneliness (Raskauskas & Stoltz, 2007).

Occurrence – Bullying does not refer to a single incident. The act of bullying refers to an incident that happens over and over and it has severe effects on the victim. The effects of the actions get worse as a bully does not show remorse for their actions, whether online or in-person (Donegan, 2012; Slonje & Smith, 2008; Olweus, 2012; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004).

Power dynamic – Both traditional and cyberbullying have similar relationships when it comes to power structures, and this power is always in favour of the bully. Bullies will only choose to pick on or bully children who appear weaker than they are. Bullies are usually aggressive individuals who tend to target passive individuals in situations where they cannot defend themselves (Donegan, 2012; Slonje & Smith, 2008; Olweus, 2012; Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004).

Literature on the differences between traditional and cyberbullying showed that there are many differences between these two types of bullying. The differences between traditional and cyberbullying are discussed under the following headings: anonymity, occurrence and time and incidents and remorse.

Anonymity – According to researchers such as Ybarra and Mitchell (2004) and Englander (2006), the primary difference between cyberbullying and traditional bullying is the anonymity that is provided by social and electronic media. This means that social media provides the bully or perpetrator with an extra degree of protection and they can attack or harass their victims anonymously. When traditional bullying takes place, the identity of the bully is known, whereas in the case of cyberbullying, the identity of the victim is unknown.

Occurrence and time – Before cell phones, the Internet and social media were available bullying was more isolated. It happened during school hours and in places where the bully and the victim were in the same location, for example the playground. Presently it is very difficult for a victim to hide from any form of bullying. Patchin and Hinduja (2006) and Slonje and

Smith (2007) stated that bullies who choose to use the Internet or social media as a platform for bullying can send a message to the victim at any time of the day, as long as they have access to their cell phones, the Internet and social media. Cyberbullying can therefore happen on the school premises or in the privacy of the bully's own home. Although cyberbullying is a relatively new phenomenon, and presently considered a very common and highly frequent form of bullying, Olweus (2012) argued that several claims about cyberbullying made in the media are greatly exaggerated and have little empirical scientific support.

Covert or hidden bullying is considered one of the most dangerous types of bullying as it is difficult to recognise. Covert bullying can include the use of hand gestures, whispering, gossiping, or excluding an individual from a group. Covert bullying may also occur where the bully decides where the victim may sit or with whom the victim can make contact or communicate with (Byers, Caltabiano, & Caltabiano, 2011; De Wet, 2016).

3.7 ROLE PLAYERS INVOVLED IN SCHOOL-BULLYING

People often think that bullying involves a one-on-one relationship, but there are in fact three main roles namely the bullies, the victims and secondary victims (Mark, Värnik, & Sisask, 2019; Obermann, 2010; Vandebosch & Van Cleemput, 2009).

3.7.1 Bullies

Traditional bullies have been described by various researchers as children who tend to be strong, impulsive, hot-tempered, defiant, fearless and who lack empathy for their peers (Besag, 1989, 2006; Mark et al., 2019; Olweus, 1978; Ross, 2003). Cyber bullies have been described as children who are generally introverts, underachievers, have low self-esteem, are unwilling to take responsibility for their actions and who will avoid any form of face to face contact (Hinduja & Patchin, 2009).

Olweus (1978) identified three types of bullies namely, the aggressive bully (learners are physically strong, impulsive, fearless, confident and lack empathy for their peers), the passive bully (less confident and more insecure than the aggressive bully) and the bully-victim (learners who have been bullied by aggressive and passive bullies).

One of the most common types of bullies that occur within the school context appears to be aggressive bullies (Besag, 1989; Boulton & Underwood, 1992; Olweus, 1978; U.S Department of Education, 1998). Aggressive bullies are described as those learners who appear physically stronger than their peers, act impulsively, lack empathy, fearless and confident.

They tend to have an aggressive personality and are motivated by power and the desire to dominate other vulnerable children.

According to Olweus (1978) passive bullies tend to be the more insecure type of bullies. He describes them as the less popular type of bullies as they often lack confidence, have low self-esteem, fare poorly in terms of academic performance and have violent outbursts or temper tantrums. As a result, they are often rejected by their peers.

Bully-victims refer to learners who have been the victims of bullying and as who are now engaging in bullying behaviour towards other learners (Olweus, 1978). Bully-victims are often physically weaker than those who bully them but are almost always physically stronger than their own victims. They possess some of the same characteristics as provocative victims. Bully-victims are found to be easily aroused and sometimes provoke others who are clearly weaker than they are.

Wolke (1999) identified a fourth group of bullies known as the pure-bullies. Learners who fall under the pure-bully group are described as healthy individuals who enjoy going to school. These bullies appear to bully other learners to obtain dominance. Wolke stated that these children have not been victimised themselves and they are rarely truant.

3.7.2 Victims

Bullying always involves a victim that will be affected either mentally or physically (Archuleta, Bucio, Garcia, & Marinez, 2012). Victims are often singled out because of their psychological traits more than their physical traits. A typical victim is likely to be the sensitive, shy, anxious or insecure-looking child in class or on the playground. However, there are some victims who are picked on for physical reasons such as being small, overweight, having a disability or belonging to a different race or religion from the bully. Most victims will feel humiliated, suffer from low self-esteem and are unhappy when they are in the company of their loved ones or friends. They may also view themselves as failures and often do not know how to go about seeking help.

As in the case of the bully, victims are found to be a heterogeneous group. Olweus (1978) described three types of victims namely, the passive victim, the provocative victim and the bully-victim.

Passive victims do not directly provoke bullies and represent the largest group of victimised children. These children are socially withdrawn, anxious, depressed, fearful, and

have very poor self-esteem. When compared with their non-victimised peers, passive victims rarely have friends, are lonely and sad, and are more nervous about change and new situations. Researchers found that this cluster of symptoms makes these children more attractive targets for bullies who are unusually competent in detecting other children's vulnerabilities (Harris & Petrie, 2003; Olweus, 1978).

In younger children, initial responses to bullying among passive victims include crying, withdrawal, and pointless anger outbursts. Older children were found to respond to bullying by either trying to escape the bully or by avoiding any situation that may lead to falling victim of bullying. These escapes include a child being truant from school or running away from home (Besag, 1998; Boulton & Underwood, 1992; Elliot, 1993; Harris & Petrie, 2003; National Crime Prevention Council 2003; Olweus, 1978; Olweus, 2001; U.S. Department of Education, 1998).

Research showed that some of the characteristics of passive victims precede and contribute to their victimisation experiences, it is also clear that many of their personal attributes also result from being bullied. According to Swearer, Song, Eagler, and Mickelson (2001) the victim's behaviours and emotional states may include some of the factors that may make them vulnerable to being bullied. Further, research found that being bullied may increase the probability of victims suffering from depression, low self-esteem, anxiety and loneliness (Swearer et al., 2001).

Besag (1989), added four types of victim's namely vicarious victims, false victims, perpetual victims and provocative victims to the passive victim group described by Olweus (1978). He described vicarious victims, or surrogate victims as children who either witness or hear about bullying incidents at school. These children are found to be victims as a result of fear and worry about the potential of becoming targets of bullying. As a result of this perceived vulnerability, as well as a concern about direct retribution from bullies, these victims choose not to help other victims of bullying or report bullying incidents even though they often feel sympathetic towards the victims (Besag, 1989).

False victims represent a small group of children who would often falsely report being bullied by their peers. This type of behaviour was found to be a result of attention and sympathy seeking from their teachers (Besag, 1989). This type of behaviour makes children more vulnerable to becoming real victims of bullying. Besag argued that children should be taught how to gain attention in a more legitimate way.

Elliot (1993), described perpetual victims as children who are exposed to bullying behaviour on a regular basis, whether at home or at school. The term 'perpetual' refers to the duration of the bullying and, according to Elliot, some children may develop a victim mentality where the victim role may become a permanent part of their psyches (Elliott, 1993).

Provocative victims are children who may behave in ways which arouse negative responses from their peers. Their behaviour may include anger outbursts, irritation towards others and exasperation (Randal, 1997). According to Randal (1997) these children are those who are disruptive in class and who often do not have friends as a result of being rejected by their peers due to their behaviour. The provocative victims are a distinct group of children who often display characteristics of other groups of children, including pure bullies and passive victims.

Further, Randal (1997) found that children who fall into this category often possess a disability such as a learning disability or attention deficit disorder which may contribute to their provocative behaviour.

3.7.3 Bystanders

While many children report that they are bullies, victims or both, there are also children who are neither the bully nor the victim. These children are known as the bystanders (Gordon, 2013). Bystanders include all children who are present during a bullying incident but exclude the bullies and the victims.

From the above it appears that multiple factors may contribute to a bully's selection of his or her victims, including the complicated interplay of a bully's motivation, a victim's characteristics, and the specific circumstances of the bullying incident.

3.8 CHARACTERISTICS OF BULLIES

Researchers agreed that traditional and cyber-bullies can be identified by various characteristics (Campfield, 2008; Inoko & Osawa, 2011; Meland, Rydning, Lobben, Breidablik, & Ekeland, 2010; Oliver & Oaks, 1994; Shin 2010). One of the characteristics that may stand out the most about bullies is the need to dominate (Olweus, 1994). Olweus (1994) stated that in general bullies have a more positive attitude towards aggression than their peers. Literature showed that bullies do not care about their victims and that they are not concerned about the health and well-being of their victims. Therefore, it appears that most bullies lack

empathy and do not show any remorse for their actions. It also appears that bullies do not take any responsibility for their actions. Researchers viewed boys who bully others as stronger than their victims and who has a need to dominate their victims who are usually smaller and weaker.

Another characteristic of bullies is that they are hot tempered and may often have anger outbursts either in class or on the playground. Both boy and girl bullies are found to tease their victims in harmful and hurtful ways. Further, studies showed that bullies rarely act in self-defence and that their bullying behaviour is mostly intentional. Studies identified two types of bullies namely the pro-active and reactive bully (Salmivalli & Nieminen 2001). According to research, the proactive bully uses the bullying behaviour to achieve a particular goal whereas the reactive bully uses bullying as a reaction to provocation. Literature showed that the reactive bullies may also often be victims (Campfield, 2008; Inoko & Osawa, 2011; Meland et al., 2010). Bullying may take on many forms, and bullies do not only bully other children at school but also their teachers, parents and siblings (De Wet, 2015; Olweus, 1994).

Cyber bullies' have been described as introverts or children who display low self-esteem. They are unable to display their anger in a socially acceptable manner and will hide behind technology including social media. As in the case of traditional bullies, cyber bullies will rarely take responsibility for their actions. Many cyber bullies are obsessed with violent computer games. In some cases, cyber bullies have attempted suicide, and many accused their parents of being unsupportive (Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004).

It is important to note that bullies and victims are not all that different. Peskin, Tortolero and Markham (2006) identified bully-victims as children who become bullies as a result of being victims of bullying. These researchers found that very often children may be victims of bullying at home and then bully other children at school. Perren and Hornung (2005) stated that children who bully others but are also bullied themselves form a sub-group known as aggressive victims, proactive victims or bully-victims. Rigby (1993) proposed that the tendency for a child to bully another child and the tendency to be victimised by others are not very different. His findings indicated that the predispositions to bully other children and to be victimised are related.

Bullies and victims may share similar characteristics such as:

- Bullies and victims are anxious, insecure, unhappy, depressed and have low self-esteem.

- They both crave positive recognition, but they both lack self-confidence and the social skills to acquire what they need.
- Bullies and victims may be perceived by their teachers as hyperactive, attention seeking, restless and having concentration problems (ADD and ADHD).
- Both bullies and victims may be disliked by their peers and teachers and they may often be socially isolated.
- Bullies and victims lack problem-solving skills (Olweus, 1993).

From the above, bullying cannot be considered as the sum of unpleasant behaviours that are owned by children, but instead it should be considered as the product of complex interactions within a system of social relationships in which children function. Bullying in the school context is a serious violation of a child's right to receive education in a safe environment. It is also important according to the Child Act that any form of bullying should not be tolerated.

3.9 GENDER DIFFERENCES

In 2012 a study was conducted by Griezel, Finger, Bodkin-Andrews, Craven and Yeung to determine whether gender differences in bullying exist. They discovered that not only do boys engage in acts of bullying more than girls, but they also tend to fall victim to bullying more than girls. Similar results were found in a study on gender differences and bullying conducted by Silva, Pereira and de Oliveira in 2013. However, Crick and Grotpeter (1995) suggested that both boys and girls engage in bullying behaviour, but they differ in their approach and style. Studies showed that there are significant differences in how males and females choose to bully their victims. Li (2006) found that boys tend to engage in more physical types of bullying and girls tend to use psychological or indirect forms of bullying.

Further, male bullies are more easily identified than girls as it is easy to see when a boy is kicking or intimidating another child. However, studies showed that girls tend to choose more indirect ways to bully others, making it difficult to determine whether a child is being bullied (Turkel, 2007).

Farrington (1993) found that males tend to bully more than females and that they will attack strangers or acquaintances while females will attack within their network of friends. Turkel (2007) found that boys use physical bullying as they are often encouraged to kick and punch out their frustrations and girls are generally taught to avoid direct confrontation. Society expects girls to be non-aggressive and to conform to the stereotype of being gentle, kind and

warm hearted. Further, according to Turkel girls are taught not to express their anger directly and therefore bullying is expressed in other forms such as gossiping. This indirect type of bullying allows the female bully to avoid direct confrontation with their victims. Boys seem to be taught differently and will therefore engage in bullying where they come face to face with their victims. Research indicated that boys feel more in control and more powerful when they can see the fear in their victim's eyes (Turkel, 2007).

Various studies conducted on cyberbullying and gender differences indicated that due to the fact that girls use more indirect forms of bullying, they are also more involved in cyberbullying and are more emotionally affected by cyberbullying (Donegan, 2012; Marcum, Higgins, Freiburger, & Ricketts, 2012).

3.10 PREVALENCE OF BULLYING IN THE SCHOOL CONTEXT

Across the world bullying in schools is a serious health problem as it affects a child's health and development (Laas, 2012; Olweus, 1999; Rigby, 2004, 2007; Rigby & Smith, 2011). Studies also showed that children in both high and primary schools are being bullied and that bullying is not a once of occurrence but happens on a regular basis. Further, it appears that bullying is not limited to physical bullying but may also include emotional, psychological and cyber-bullying (Baldry & Farrington, 1999; Juan et al., 2018; Olweus, 1987).

Statistics on the prevalence of bullying occurring in the school context appear to vary due to several factors including how the concept bullying is defined, how research data are collected and the willingness of those involved to report the incidents. The statistics on bullying occurrence in schools are often overlooked or ignored by schools and society as schools do not know how to handle the problem effectively and society feels that these incidents are not as serious as people make them out to be (Laas & Boezaart, 2014).

Literature regarding the prevalence of disruptive or bullying behaviour among school-aged children shows that bullying behaviour in schools is on the rise and it remains a public health concern due to the impact it has on a child's mental health, social adjustment and academic performance (Cornell, Gregory, Huang & Fan, 2013; Laas & Boezaart, 2014; Marais & Meier, 2010). Studies on the prevalence of bullying in schools are important in order to determine whether current prevention programmes are effective and whether they need amendment.

International studies conducted on the prevalence of bullying taking place in the school context indicated that between 10% and 23% of school-aged children were victims of bullying (Hymel & Swearer, 2015). Studies on the prevalence of bullying in South Africa in 2002, 2008

and 2012 showed that a high number of children indicated that they have been victims of bullying. The first South African National Youth Risk Behavioural Survey was conducted by the Department of Health in 2002. The results showed that 49.3% of secondary school pupils who participated in the study indicated that they have been bullied. A survey of 207 children indicated that 60.9% were bullied at school or at home (Laas & Boezaart, 2014).

In 2008 a National Schools Violence Study (NSVS) was undertaken by the Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention (CJCP). The study found that 22% of the secondary school learners surveyed had been victims of violence in the 12 months before the study was conducted (Laas & Boezaart, 2014). This was viewed as the largest national survey conducted with regards to school violence. The study included 120 secondary schools, 139 principals, 277 teachers and 6787 learners. The findings of the NSVS indicated the following:

- 10.8% of the participants had been threatened with violence in the past
- 7.5% indicated that they had been victims of assault
- 3.19% of the participants indicated that they have been robbed before
- 1.4% of the participants indicated that they have been victims of sexual violence
- 12% of the participants indicated that someone at school had made them feel inferior (Laas, 2012).

In 2012, a follow-up study was conducted. In this study the researchers found that 22.2% of the secondary school learners were victims of violence in the school. The sample comprised 5 939 learners, 121 principals and 239 educators. The results are summarised below:

- 12.2% had been threatened with violence by someone at school
- 6.3% had been assaulted
- 4.7% had been sexually assaulted or raped
- 4.5% had been robbed at school (Burton & Leoschut, 2012).

These results show that more than a fifth of the learners who participated in the study experienced or were exposed to some form of violence at the school. Although this study focused on violence and bullying that occur in the school, Burton and Leoschut (2012) also included the results of cyberbullying, as this form of bullying is not confined to a particular physical environment. The results showed that 20% of the learners indicated that they have been victims of cyberbullying.

Prevalence of bullying may be higher than what is reported to teachers, as children are often too scared to report incidents as they fear that they may become victims. However,

research done on the prevalence of bullying behaviour showed that across the world, children are being abused and attacked by other children on a regular basis in both primary and secondary schools (high schools) (Atlas & Pepler, 2010; Olweus, 1995, 2002). Where children previously only engaged in physical or emotional and verbal bullying, cyberbullying is also becoming more prevalent in schools (Ybarra & Mitchell, 2004).

In 2015 an article was placed in a local South African newspaper (*Beeld*) which stated the following: *"1 uit 3 Skoolkinders geboelie"* (Nel, 2015. This article was written after a 12-year-old school girl committed suicide as a result of bullying. In the article her parents pleaded to parents to inform their children about bullying and bullies at school. They asked that parents help their children by talking about their problems and making them aware of the fact that there is hope in any bad situation. Moreover, the article indicated that bullying is a bigger problem than South Africans are aware of. Statistics showed that 70% of children who have been bullied do not talk about it because they feel helpless. Research conducted by the UNISA's Department of Youth Research found that children often feel that even if the act of bullying towards them is reported, no action is taken against the bully (Nel, 2015).

From the above, it is clear that bullying in schools remains a problem as statistics do not show a decrease in the percentage of children being bullied each year. The former discussions also showed that if bullying behaviour is not stopped, it can lead to serious problems such as personality disorders and criminal behaviour in adulthood. Bullying should therefore not be seen as just part of growing up,- but must be viewed as a serious offence. Due to the serious effects of bullying, it is important for an anti-bullying programme to be developed to prevent bullying behaviour from continuing into adulthood. In the next section the serious effects of bullying will be briefly discussed.

3.11 EFFECTS OR CONSEQUENCES OF BULLYING

Previous research on the effects of bullying on the victim indicated that the harm inflicted whether physical or psychological (direct or indirect), may cause serious psychological harm and have long-lasting effects on the victim throughout life (AlBuhairan & de Vries, 2017; Dombeck, 2007; Donegan, 2012).

Previous research indicated that children who are bullied must endure a great deal of sadness and they often suffer from physical, emotional, social and educational consequences. Bullying can cause long-term emotional damage to the bully as well as the victim and bystanders. A child does not necessarily have to be physically harmed in order to suffer lasting

harm; words and gestures can be enough to leave a scar (Dombeck, 2007). Bullying is viewed as the most common form of violence in schools. Studies indicated that bullying behaviour may not only have serious effects on the victims, but also on the bully (Rigby, 2000).

3.11.1 Effects/consequences of bullying on victims and bystanders

Although the school is viewed as a safe place where parents leave their children to receive education, research indicated that primary school children must face bullies and endure various forms of bullying behaviour on a daily basis either in the classroom, on the playground, cafeteria or sports ground (AlBuhairan & de Vries, 2017; Rivers, 2014). The result of a child having to sit in class or hide during break time, worrying about being bullied, will have serious consequences on the child's overall mental health and academic performance (AlBuhairan & de Vries, 2017; Rigby, 1996; Rivers, 2014).

Baldry (2004) indicated that regardless of the type of bullying the victim must endure, many victims suffer from mental health conditions such as depression and suicide ideation. Victims of persistent bullying often develop somatic complaints which include stomach aches and headaches. Learners or victims often use this as an excuse to be absent from school. When learners are forced to go to school by their parents, who are often unaware of the cause of symptoms, they may experience a lack of concentration, which in turn may result in poor academic performance. Only then may parents investigate or enquire about the reason for their child's poor performance or wanting to stay at home on a regular basis. Often teachers are also unaware and may assume that the victim is just lazy or naughty and is looking for excuses not to come to school (Baldry, 2004). Bullying in the school context may create a hostile and unsafe school environment and this may lead learners who are victims of bullying to feel helpless, powerless, let down by the education system, anxious, depressed and rejected (De Wet, 2016). Victims may often feel that they are not part of their class or peer group and that other learners view them as weak. Often victims will take home their frustrations and lash out towards their siblings or pets. As a result, family relationships may deteriorate and the child may feel rejected, lonely and isolated (De Wet, 2005; Ortega-Ruiz, Elipe, Mora-Merchan, Genta, Brighi, Guarini, Smith, Thompson, & Tippet, 2012).

Dombeck (2007) stated that victims of bullying may experience short and long-term effects of bullying. Some of the short-term effects include anger, depression, anxiousness and avoiding the setting where bullying occurs, somatic symptoms, regular reports of illness, poor academic performance and suicidal ideation. Unfortunately bullying does not only have short-

term effects on victims, but often victims of bullying carry the effects into high school and adulthood. Some of the long-term effects of bullying include reduced occupational opportunities, trust issues, social phobias, self-esteem problems, loneliness, feelings of anger and often a desire for revenge and increased incidence of continued bullying and victimization (Dombeck, 2007).

Lawrence and Adams (2006) found that children who are bullied at school will not only suffer from psychological and emotional problems when they are older, they will also find it more difficult to adjust to any new situation.

3.11.2 Effects/consequences of bullying on the bully

The effects of bullying on the victim are better known as previous studies gave less thought to the effects of bullying on the bully (Blumen, 2013). Besides hurting others, bullies damage themselves as well (Abel, 2010). Research found that every time a bully hurts another child, he or she becomes even more emotionally isolated from the suffering of his or her victims. Bullies learn to justify their actions and behaviours by believing that their victims deserve the bullying. They also learn that the only way they can get what they want from other children is by controlling them and by using force (About bullying, 2008; Wolke, 2015). Bullies often fail to develop social skills such as sharing, empathising and negotiating that forms the basis of lasting relationships. Many bullies are therefore often pushed away by their peers and become loners (About bullying, 2008; Wolke & Lereya, 2015).

According to Wolke and Lereya (2015) it is important for teachers and parents to note that a child who bullies others engages in this behaviour due to an underlying problem or difficulty he or she may be experiencing. It is therefore important to determine the reason for his or her behaviour to prevent this from escalating or continuing as bullying can have short and long-term effects on the bully. Some of the short-term effects include poor school performance as a result of being suspended from school, increased truancy, difficulty maintaining social relationships and increased risk for substance abuse in adolescents. Without treatment, bullying can continue into adulthood. Some of the long-term effects of bullying on the bully include spousal or child abuse, antisocial behaviour, substance abuse, difficulty controlling emotions, poor employment, depression, convictions of crime and even suicide.

Compelling research showed that bullies are twice as likely as their peers to have criminal convictions (Abel, 2010). Sometimes bullies may hate the way they treat their victims, but they justify their behaviour by convincing themselves that their victim deserved it as bullies are

often being bullied by other children. This feeling tends to override any feelings of empathy in the bully (Abel, 2010).

Studies that compared bullies with learners who are not involved in bullying behaviour, found that bullies are more likely to become involved in self-destructive behaviours such as self-mutualisation (cutting), alcohol and substance abuse and fighting (De Wet, 2005). In school, bullies are known as those children who have been caught stealing, cheating in tests, vandalising school property and visiting the principal's office on a regular basis.

Whatever role is being played, it seems that bullying puts children at risk for developing numerous psychiatric issues such as depression, anxiety, panic disorders, suicidal thinking or behaviour and agoraphobia (fear of open spaces, crowds or situations that may be difficult to escape from) (Blumen, 2013).

From the above it is clear that bullying behaviour can lead to serious consequences if not stopped. Although it has been indicated that the study was conducted in primary schools as research showed that bullying behaviour has become more prevalent in the lives of South African primary school children, it is important to determine where the different types of bullying occur in a primary school context. The next section will briefly discuss the areas where bullying can take place in primary schools.

3.12 SETTINGS WHERE BULLYING OCCURS

Research findings indicated that bullying occurs in any setting where children come together, and it may occur in multiple settings. The majority of bullying reported in the school context took place during break time where there is limited adult supervision. Other places on the school ground include classrooms, hallways and the restrooms. Children reported that they are victimised on their way home, during sport practice and in their neighbourhoods (Fekkes, Pijpers, & Verloove-Vanhorick, 2005; Rigby, 1996).

Previously, electronic or cyberbullying only occurred at home when children had access to the Internet or their cell phones. Presently children take their phones to school and therefore cyberbullying can take place anywhere and anytime a child has access to his or her phone and the Internet (Delfabbro, Winefield, Trainor, Dollard, Anderson, Metzer, & Hammarstrom, 2006; Rigby, 1996).

3.13 CHAPTER SUMMARY

It is clear that bullying behaviour is a complex phenomenon which involves various factors, can be caused by various factors, take on various forms and occur in multiple settings. It is important that all these factors are understood and taken into consideration when planning an intervention programme. Literature on bullying indicated that bullying remains a problem in primary schools of South Africa, and if the bullying behaviour is not stopped it can continue into high school and eventually adulthood. Studies showed that bullying does not only have long-lasting effects on the victims and the bystanders but bullying also has long-lasting and devastating psychological and emotional effects on the bully. Previous literature and studies on bullying mainly focused on planning intervention that will protect and help the victims. The lack of research on intervention programmes mainly focusing on the bully, and the long-lasting effects bullying has on the bully, validated the importance of developing an intervention programme for children who have been identified as bullies in their schools.

As stated in the above, emotional intelligence and the lack of emotional intelligence skills and social skills are major factors that may play a role in the child becoming a bully. As the purpose of this study was to develop an anti-bullying intervention programme which focused on the development of the bullies' emotional intelligence skills, it is important to understand the concept of emotional intelligence and related aspects.

In the next chapter the concept of emotional intelligence is discussed, where focus is placed on the definition, history, importance of developing and teaching emotional intelligence, relationship between emotional intelligence and bullying and the role of emotional intelligence in the family and schools.

CHAPTER 4

LITERATURE REVIEW ON THE CONCEPT EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Designed to measure intellectual intelligence, the intelligence quotient (IQ) gives a score from a series of tests. A general assumption is that individuals who have a high IQ will have the ability to grasp facts better and faster and will therefore perform well in the academic field compared to individuals with lower IQ levels (Goleman, 1997). From this assumption thus stems the assumption that individuals with higher IQ levels will also be more successful in life compared to individuals with lower IQ levels. These assumptions have been proven incorrect by Goleman, 1997 who stated the following:

"What can we change that will help our children fare better in life? What factors are at play, for example, when people with high IQ flounder and those with modest IQ do surprisingly well? I would argue that the difference quite often lies in the abilities called emotional intelligence, which include self-control, persistence and the ability to motivate oneself" (Goleman, 1997, p. 4).

According to Goleman (1997) IQ tests only account for 20% of a person's success in life and the remaining 80% lies in the ability of and individual to be emotionally intelligent or have a higher EQ. Goleman stated that emotional intelligence plays just as important a role as intelligence. For Goleman, to be successful in life not only requires a person to be mathematically smart but also requires a person to be emotionally smart (Goleman, 1997). He explained that a person's deepest feelings are essential for human existence and that the word *Homo sapiens* which means "thinking species" is misleading considering the inclusion of emotions in our lives:

"Intelligence can come to nothing when the emotions hold sway" (Goleman, 1997, p. 4).

Emotions are involved in everything humans do, every action, every decision and every judgement we make. Research indicated that emotional intelligence as a concept has become a very important indicator of a person's skills, knowledge and abilities in school, personal life and the workplace and for the purpose of this study the school context. Everyone experiences different feelings and emotions daily. Emotional intelligence therefore plays an important role in decision making and successful management of our relationships with others.

"In a very real sense we have two minds – one that thinks and one that feels" (Goleman, 1997, p. 4).

4.2 BRIEF HISTORY AND ORIGINS OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The roots of the term "emotional intelligence" can be traced back to the work by Charles Darwin on the importance of emotional expression for human survival. In 1872 Darwin published his book "The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals." In this book he argued that humans and animals show their emotions through similar behaviours. However, the first use of the term emotional intelligence is attributed to Wayne Payne's doctoral thesis on developing emotional intelligence in 1985.

When researchers and psychologists conducted research on intelligence, they focused mainly on the cognitive aspects such as problem-solving and memory. The research journey led them to discover that non-cognitive aspects were as important in intelligence (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). In 1920 Thorndike used the term "social intelligence" to describe a person's ability to understand and manage other people.

Gardner (1983) argued that traditional types of intelligence such as IQ failed to explain a person's cognitive ability, therefore he included interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence. As a result of research showing a need for people to be emotionally intelligent to be successful in life, research on the topic became more popular. After Goleman (1995) published his book in 1995 articles on emotional intelligence and the importance of being emotionally intelligent began to appear across a wide range of academic papers and popular magazines.

Dr Reuven Bar-on (2006) explained that emotional intelligence reflects a person's ability to deal successfully with people they interact with and with their own feelings. He developed the Bar-On EQ-I, and this inventory is the first scientifically developed and validated measure of emotional intelligence. This inventory reflects a person's emotional ability to deal with daily environmental challenges and to be successful in their personal and professional lives (Bar-On, 2006).

4.3 THE IMPORTANCE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

The importance of emotional intelligence came to light when Gardner (1983) identified a spectrum of "intelligences" in his book *Frames of the Mind*. These intelligences included linguistics which involves language skills, logical-mathematical skills, musical skills, bodily-kinaesthetic skills and personal intelligence. Personal intelligence includes experiencing and

admitting one's own feelings, being able to control these feelings, self-motivation and the ability to maintain social relationships (Gardner, 1983).

Emotional intelligence is important as it allows a person to be able to appraise and express emotions in the self and others. Salovey and Mayer (1990) suggested that appraising and expressing emotions accurately is emotional intelligence because people who are more accurate can more readily perceive and respond to their own emotions and better express those emotions to other people. They further stated that emotionally intelligent people can respond more appropriately to their own feelings and emotions because of the accuracy with which they perceive them. The above-mentioned skills can be considered as emotionally intelligent because they require the processing of emotional information from within the person, and because it is clear that some level of minimal competence skills is necessary for adequate social functioning.

Salovey and Mayer (1990) also included the skilful recognition of other people's emotional reactions and empathic responses as a component of emotional intelligence as these skills enable an individual to gage accurately the affective responses in other people and to choose socially adaptive behaviours in response. They stated that these individuals should be perceived by others as genuine and warm while individuals lacking these skills appear unapproachable and oblivious.

Further, emotional intelligence is important as it allows a person to regulate his or her own emotions. According to Zeman et al. (2006), emotional regulation involves the management and organisation of diverse systems and components. These systems and components include internal systems for example neurological, cognitive and subjective evaluations, behavioural components for example facial and behavioural actions and external or social components which include cultural values, social contextual significance and personal goals. Zeman et al. (2006) stated that a child's ability to regulate his or her emotions will depend on previous interaction with their social environment for example their interaction with caregivers, peer interactions and the socialisation process.

Research indicated that emotional intelligence can be learned and improved at any age by acquiring the necessary skills and applying them to your inner functioning and social situations (Goleman, 1995). According to emotional intelligence researchers such as Gardner (1983), emotional intelligence often results from learning that occurs throughout a person's life. Maturity can improve emotional intelligence skills, but children can also learn these skills at a

very early age and this can in turn help them to cope with life challenges (de Klerk & le Roux, 2003).

Previous studies revealed a significant, long-term trend for children, on average, to be lacking basic emotional and social skills (Gottman, 1997). The view of the researcher is that it is important for parents, caregivers, guardians and teachers to show genuine respect for children's needs and feelings. A child's feelings do not disappear when they are ignored by parents or told to feel differently when there is no clear justification for their feelings and emotions. While all behaviours are not considered as socially acceptable, all needs and feelings of a child are. Research conducted by Gottman (1997) has confirmed that a loved child receives the gift of unconditional acceptance and with it the possibility to develop the necessary neurological structures which will provide him or her with a basis for healthy emotional, social and cognitive development.

Research indicated that emotional intelligence can play a role in bullying behaviour. Rivers (2014) stated that, when learners lack emotional intelligence skills, they lack the ability to understand the emotions of others and this may lead to bullying behaviour (Rivers, 2014). According to Ginott (1965) and Rivers (2014), emotional intelligence should be taught to learners at a very early age and educators or caregivers should provide an explanation at a level appropriate to the age of the learners who are being taught. He further stated that emotional intelligence programmes should be implemented in schools at an early age and should run throughout the school years. Ginott (1965) argued that children benefit from emotional intelligence programmes implemented at home and the community.

Ginott (1965) and de Klerk and le Roux (2003) stated that unlike other intelligences, emotional intelligence can be learned, developed and improved by acquiring the necessary skills as indicated in Figure 4.1 (next page).

It is therefore important that emotional intelligence skills be taught at a very early age. According to de Klerk and le Roux (2003), emotional intelligence skills training is important as children with high emotional intelligence skills are found to be physically healthier as they are better able to cope and handle stress and stressful situations. Further, de Klerk and le Roux stated that emotionally intelligent children can achieve their fullest potential as they are able to use their brain capacity more effectively. In schools where there are emotional intelligence skills enhancement programmes, researchers such as Rivers (2014) indicated that learners with higher emotional intelligence skills can maintain and build healthier relationships with their

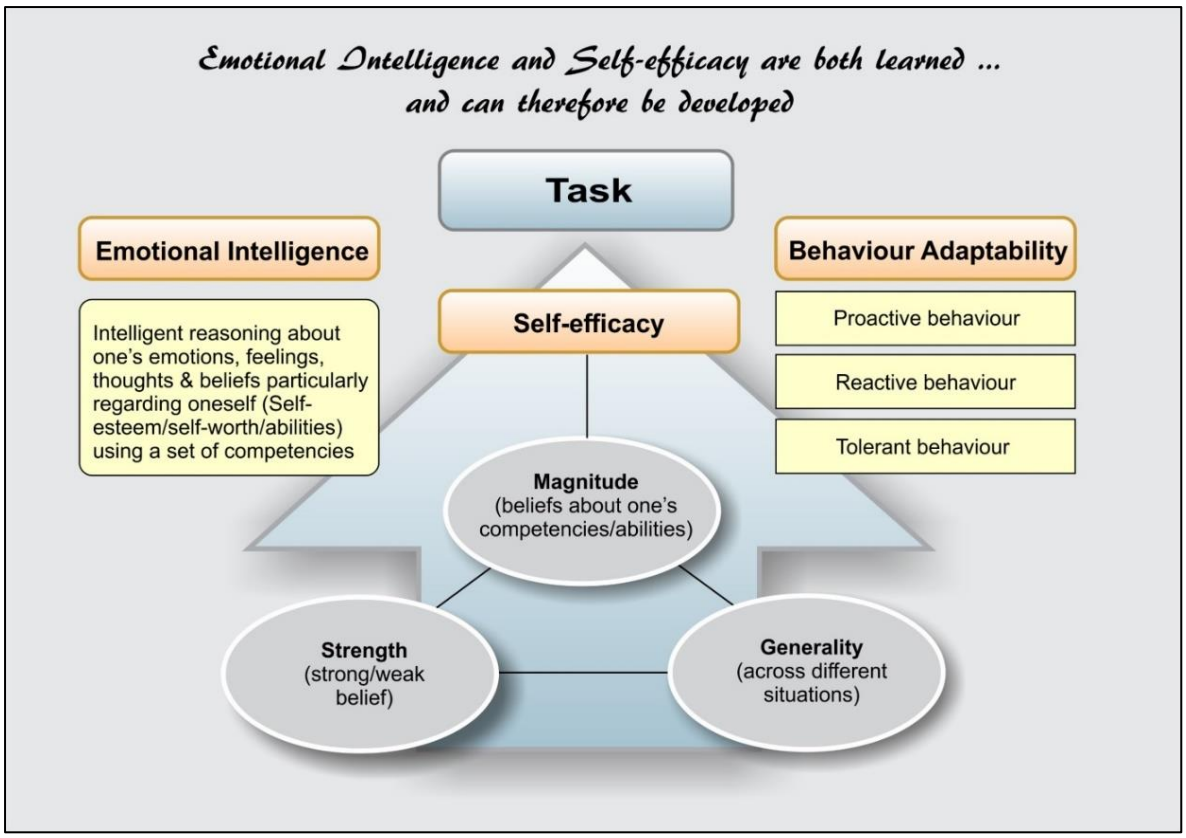

Figure 4.1. **Emotional Intelligence, Self-efficacy and Behaviour Adaptability.** Adapted from Van der Merwe et al., 2015

friends and peers. Learners who are emotionally stronger, display less behavioural problems and are less prone to acts of violence. Previous studies showed that emotionally intelligent learners are more resilient, more disciplined, have more respect for authority including their teachers and parents and they can make better decisions in difficult situations (Brackett & Rivers, 2014; de Klerk & le Roux, 2003; Goleman, 1995).

According to de Klerk and le Roux (2003), learners who are emotionally intelligent acquired the skill of emotional awareness. Emotional awareness is described as the ability of the learner to recognise his or her own feelings and those of others and the ability to read social signals and cues correctly. Emotionally intelligent learners will have insight into the perspectives of others, in understanding the reason for another child expressing a specific emotion and behave in a particular way. Learners who are considered as emotionally intelligent are those who can be flexible in situations and consider alternatives without getting upset or feeling offended if their ideas were not considered the best. Another major skill a learner needs to acquire is the knowledge that they are in control of their own feelings and emotions and that they are the ones who can choose the correct response in a given situation. Further, emotionally

intelligent children will have the ability to think about the consequences of their behaviour before acting. They will also think how they might be perceived by others when they express a certain emotion or behave in a certain way. Moreover, emotionally intelligent learners will be viewed as resilient and they will have endurance and perseverance. They will therefore be able to see their failures as learning processes and find alternatives for their negative thoughts. Lastly, an emotionally intelligent skilled child will be viewed and perceived as someone who chose to be happy and to enjoy their young lives (de Klerk & le Roux, 2003).

4.4 FACTORS AFFECTING THE DEVELOPMENT OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

Katanani and Mas'oud (2017) stated that there are various factors that may affect the development of emotional intelligence in children. The factors that were found to have an immediate effect on the development of EQ in learners were described as the character of the child, neurophysiology, cognitive enhancement and social relationships with family and friends. When a route for the learning of emotional intelligence should be mapped, the point of departure will be the family. The family ambiance is viewed as the most important factor that affects the development of EQ in children. Children learn how to be emotionally intelligent from observing the behaviour of the various family members they interact with. From these family members, children learn how to deal with their changing physical environment. Gaining an understanding of their environment assists them in understanding it better and developing ways to use their different abilities (Berk, 2002; de Klerk & le Roux, 2003; Katanani & Mas'oud, 2017).

Researchers interested in studying the factors that may affect the development of EQ in children, agreed that emotional intelligence develops during the first years of a child's life and improves as the child enters the school phase (Berk, 2002, Goleman, 1995; Katanani & Mas'oud, 2017).

4.5 CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT INDIVIDUAL

Katanani and Mas'oud (2017) described individuals with a high EQ as having the ability to control their emotions when they are faced with challenging or stressful life situations. These individuals are characterised by elevated levels of self-motivation and logical and rational thought. Having the ability to control their own behaviours, they are also able to assist other individuals in teaching them how to control their emotions. An emotionally intelligent individual is therefore able to not only control and understand their own feelings and emotions,

but also those of others. The ability to control their feelings and emotions further allows them to accurately and appropriately express their feelings and emotions. Individuals with high EQ can read paralanguage (body language and facial expressions) of other individuals (de Klerk & le Roux, 2003; Goleman, 1995; Katanani & Mas'oud, 2017).

Goleman (1995) stated that an emotionally intelligent individual can be characterised by five elements. Firstly, an emotionally intelligent person has self-awareness. This means that an individual is capable of recognising and understanding their own emotions, moods and the motivations for these emotions and the effect these emotions and moods may have on themselves and others. He stated that a person who mastered this skill will be perceived as confident, having a sense of humour as they can laugh at their own mistakes and they will be aware of the impression they make on others as they are able to read others' reactions and how they are perceived by others.

Secondly, an emotionally intelligent individual has self-regulation. This means that individuals can control their impulses. They will be able to stop and think about the consequences of their actions before they respond. Goleman (1995) argued that individuals with good self-regulation will be able to express themselves in a socially acceptable manner. An emotionally mature individual will be conscientious and will be able to take responsibility for their actions. These individuals will be flexible and will not get upset when they must adapt to any form of change in their lives or daily routines. Further, Goleman explained that a person will not respond kindly to another person who has been rude to them just to avoid conflict, they will respond in a manner that will not escalate the situation.

Thirdly, an emotionally intelligent person will have the skill of internal motivation. Internal motivation is also referred to as self-improvement. A person is described and perceived by others as someone who shows commitment to completing a task and has perseverance in the face of adversity.

Empathy, which is described as the ability to understand another person's emotional reaction, is also described as the foundation of emotional intelligence (Brackett & Rivers, 2014; Goleman, 1995). Empathy is seen as part of emotional intelligence as empathy leads to caring for and having compassion for other people. It can also lead to a decrease in violence and crime (de Klerk & le Roux, 2003). De Klerk and le Roux (2003) stated that not every child will acquire emotional intelligence or empathy skills with equal sureness, but the importance remains acquiring these skills, no matter the level. According to Goleman (1995), maturity in

this trait shows perceptiveness in terms of other individuals' emotions and taking an active interest in their distresses. An empathetic person will also be able to anticipate another person's needs and be able to respond to it in an appropriate manner (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1

Goleman's Emotional Intelligence Competencies

Personal Skills or Competences *How we manage ourselves*	**Social Skills or Competences** *How we handle relationships with others*
Self-awareness	**Empathy**
○ Emotional awareness	○ Understanding others
○ Accurate self-assessment	○ Developing others
○ Self-confidence	○ Service orientation
Self-regulation	○ Leveraging diversity
○ Self-control	○ Political awareness
○ Trustworthiness	**Social skills**
○ Conscientiousness	○ Influence
○ Adaptability	○ Communication
○ Innovation	○ Conflict management
Motivation	○ Leadership
○ Achievement drive	○ Change catalyst
○ Commitment	○ Building bonds
○ Initiative	○ Collaboration and cooperation
○ Optimism	○ Team capabilities

Note. Adapted from https://wwwskillsyouneed.com/general/emotional-intelligence.html

Finally, Goleman (1995) described an emotionally intelligent or capable person as an individual with social skills. This means that the individual can identify social cues to establish common ground, to build relationships and to manage relationships effectively. He stated that maturity in this trait implies good and effective communication skills. An individual will thus be able to attentively listen to another person and then respond in an appropriate manner. Goleman also stated that an individual with good social skills will also have conflict management skills which means that they will be able to diffuse difficult situations by using persuasion and negotiation skills (Brackett & Rivers, 2014; de Klerk & le Roux, 2003; Goleman, 1995).

4.6 THE EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT BRAIN

To understand and develop emotional intelligence, it is important to understand the neuroscience behind it. According to the neuroscientist, Antonio Damasio (1996, 2003), emotions and feelings plays an important role in the ability of an individual to solve problems, make decisions and cope with environmental changes. He argued that cognitive processes such as rational thinking cannot occur without emotions. Further, Damasio (2003) stated that if individuals fail to develop an understanding about emotions, they may have trouble dealing with mental illnesses such as depression, drug addiction and other pain conditions.

Researchers agreed that an individual's inherited predispositions, interaction and interrelatedness between emotions, needs, the brain and hormones are important factors for the development of emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2005; Damasio, 1996, 2003; Goleman, 1995). Although different independent areas with different primary tasks may be distinguished in the brain, they cooperate and interact to perform a particular task (Goleman, 1995). There is increasing evidence that emotional intelligence has a great impact on our ability to learn and is a great predictor of our future success.

Early models in psychology described human behaviour in terms of a stimulus and a response. However, development in neuroscience and psychology showed that there are several stages that fall in between the stimulus and the response (Caruso & Salovey, 2004; Goleman, 1995). Scientists found that information is filtered through our attitudes before it is being processed as a feeling, thought or emotion. When a person receives a visual signal, the signal moves from the retina to the thalamus where it is translated into a language understandable by the brain. Most of the received messages will then move to the visual cortex where it will be analysed and assessed for the correct meaning and to deliver an appropriate response. When the response is emotional, a signal will be sent to the amygdala for the emotional centres to be activated. A small part of the original signal will move straight from the thalamus to the amygdala in a quicker transmission which will allow a faster response. The amygdala can therefore trigger an emotional response before the cortical centres of the brain realised what is happening (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Lane & McRae, 2004). Each region of the brain that plays an important role in the experience of emotions and which facilitates emotional intelligence as presented in Figure 4.2 (next page) will be briefly discussed in the following paragraphs.

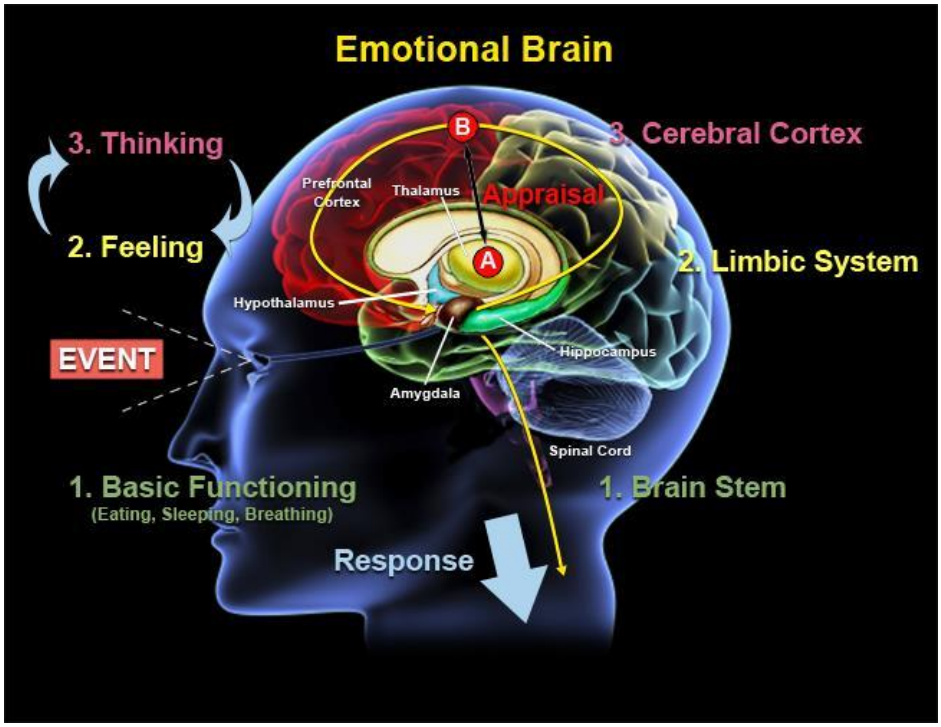

Figure 4.2. **The Emotional Intelligent Brain.** Retrieved from http://johnhaime.com /2014/04/your-emotional-brain-a-key-in-performance/

Goleman (1995) suggested that the emotional centres developed from the brainstem. The brainstem is the only part that is fully developed at birth. It is located at the bottom of the brain and runs down into the top of the spine (Zillmer, Spiers & Culbertson, 2001). The brainstem is responsible for the flow of messages between the brain and the rest of the body. It is responsible for human survival as it controls the basic body functions including, breathing, heart rate, swallowing, consciousness, sleep and blood pressure. Further, Goleman (1995) stated that that the brainstem is responsible for the stress response known as the fight/flight response. He argued that the "emotional brain" existed before the rational brain.

The limbic system or middle brain is the part that surrounds the brainstem and plays an important role in a person's memory and learning process. This system consists of the amygdala, hippocampus and parts of the thalamus.

The almond-sized amygdala is seated in the centre of the limbic system and it is involved in the perception of emotions such as anger, fear and sadness, as well as the ability of humans to control aggression and other stimuli (Blackford & Pine, 2012; Zillmer et al., 2001). Another important function of the amygdala is the ability of humans to perceive emotions experienced by others. It is described as the processing centre that functions as the receiver of incoming messages from our senses (Zillmer et al., 2001). It often occurs that the amygdala may be

imprecise in over-generalising the memories that are being stored or recalled. Researchers found that individuals with a damaged amygdala often show difficulty in experiencing emotions and can also show no emotional response (Goleman, 1995, 1997; Goleman et al., 2002; Zillmer et al., 2001).

The hippocampus plays an important role in learning as it enables the brain to convert any new information that is stored in the prefontal cortex into long-term memory. The hippocampus is responsible for remembering and storing all experiences as it receives processed sensory information from the neo cortex (Rubin, Watson, Duff, & Cohen, 2014; Zillmer et al., 2001).

The part of the brain that receives sensory stimuli which stimulates emotions is known as the thalamus. When an individual experience an event as dangerous, it is the responsibility of the thalamus to send this information directly to the amygdala. The thalamus is the relay station of the body as it codes emotional information and then this information it is sent to neocortex for further processing (Fama & Sullivan, 2016; Zillmer et al., 2001).

In the 1970's, scientists discovered that our bodies contain not only an electrical transmission system but also a chemical system that transmits messages to the brain. This chemical system is based on chemicals known as peptides which have receptors in every cell of the human body. Scientists believe that the human brain is linked to all the systems of our bodies and that the peptides are responsible for our emotions and the things we feel and how we experience these emotions in the various parts of our bodies (Basheer, 2015; Zillmer et al., 2001). Another function of the limbic system is to store and remember past experiences and help us learn from them. When information enters the limbic system, humans experience bodily sensations which are transmitted by the peptides in the form of a reaction to the stimulus (Basheer, 2015).

Researchers often refer to the limbic system as the 'emotional brain' as it is responsible for the experience and expression of emotions (Goleman, 1995; Goleman et al., 2002; Weare, 2004). Scientists such as Basheer (2015) and Goleman (1995) stated that the emotional brain guides humans in deciding which situation can be approached and which situation should be avoided.

In contrast to the emotional brain, the rational brain or neocortex assists humans in thinking, questioning, problem-solving, planning and generating new ideas. Scientists found that emotional responses are milliseconds faster than cognitive responses. The limbic brain sends

warning messages of a crisis before the rational brain has processed the incoming signal. The body has thus been alerted and is ready to act (Basheer, 2015; Goleman, 1995, 2006).

These insights into understanding the development and functioning of the brain is important when developing emotional intelligence. Individuals often know what they should do when faced with a specific situation, but they often do not put this knowledge into practice. A reason for this is that having the knowledge about something occurs in a different part of the brain such as the neocortex, whereas knowing how to do something happens in the limbic part of the brain. The limbic system or emotional brain learns through doing. Therefore, for humans to turn good intentions to habits of behaviour, they need to put them into practice through physical experience and repetition (Goleman, 1995, 2006; Rajmohan & Mohandas, 2007).

Emotions are thus generated in the limbic system which consists of a series of structures that lies beneath the cerebral cortex or our thinking brain. Emotions are physiological responses to stimuli that guide us away from danger and pull us toward the things that make us experience pleasure. Emotions can affect the way we perceive an external situation or event that influences our conscious thoughts, resulting in behaviour that may not be appropriate in handling the specific situation. The amygdala in the limbic system is the part of the brain which is responsible for the fear response and the hippocampus is involved in the encoding and retrieving of our memories which are associated with an emotional component. The frontal cortex is also associated with the experience of emotions as it receives information from the limbic system and then produces the conscious feelings we experience (Goleman, 1995; Ridderinkhof, Ullsperger, & Crone, 2004).

According to Barbey, Colom, & Grafman (2012) the first step in the emotional intelligence process is to become aware of your own emotions and to be able to name them. Research postulates that when we can name our emotions, it will help us to take a step back and consider the consequences if we should decide to act on them, which provides a link between emotional and cognitive processing in the prefrontal cortex (Barbey et al., 2012). As discussed above, the amygdala is the part of the brain that functions as the reaction centre that often allows individuals to overreact to a situation causing them to choose actions that may not lead to solving a problem they are facing.

4.7 THE RELATIONSHIP OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE WITH AGGRESSION AND BULLYING

According to the WHO (2002), aggression is viewed as a worldwide problem, as more than 1.6 million people die as a result of aggressive and violent behaviour. Aggression is defined by Anderson and Bushman (2002) as any behaviour that is directed towards another individual and that is carried out with the intent to cause serious harm and injury. In addition, they stated that the perpetrator must believe that the intended behaviour will lead to serious harm or injury and that the victim is motivated to avoid the serious harm or injury.

Researchers such as Brackett and Rivers (2014) and Anderson and Bushman (2002) indicated that aggressive behaviour produces negative effects on the aggressor (the bully) and the victim. Various researchers, who focused their studies on the effects of aggression on adolescent aggressors, reported that they were often truant from school which resulted in poor academic performance. The researchers also stated that these adolescents showed psychosocial maladjustment and various mental health problems such as depression and substance abuse (Brackett & Rivers, 2014; Garcìa-Sancho, Salguero, & Fernandez-Berrocal, 2014).

Failure to implement intervention programmes in schools may result in the school-age aggressors becoming adult aggressors who are more likely to develop psychiatric problems such as antisocial personality disorders, become involved in criminal activities, lack the ability to form and maintain healthy relationships and have trouble with employment. This statement is supported by researchers including Mann & Barnett, 2012 and Vreeman and Carroll, 2007 who emphasised the importance of designing effective programmes in an attempt to reduce violent behaviour and enhance anger management.

According to Cava, Buelga, Musitu, and Murgui (2010) and O'Moore and Kirkham (2001) aggressors are not the only individuals found to be negatively affected by their aggressive behaviours. Victims often experience similar types of mental health problems including depression, low self-esteem, anxiety, difficulty sleeping and being absent from school on a regular basis.

One of the most common forms of aggressive behaviour amongst children is bullying (Waseem & Nickerson, 2019). Literature showed that bullying remains a problem in local and international schools. As studies found that emotional intelligence can reduce aggressive behaviour, researchers began to shift their focus from aggression to bullying in an attempt to

study the effect of emotional intelligence on reducing bullying behaviour which will be discussed in the next section (Joliffe & Farrington, 2006).

One of the major research questions for this study was: In what way can emotional intelligence help to decrease bullying behaviour? Consider the following story:

"*Jimmy had developed a habit of being disrespectful and unkind. He was often in detention for being mean to other kids. At his old school he was used to getting into trouble and had built up a tough-guy persona to cover the feeling that he was a mess-up, a failure. This was reinforced every time he saw his report card covered in F's. He entered an after school programme called "Skills for Success" presented by a social worker who worked at his school. The programme taught him many new words to describe how he was feeling, well beyond mad and frustrated. He could draw pictures about the conflicts he experienced in his life and dreams about what he wanted to become when he grew up. He learned skills about how to know himself and that everyone matters. One day he overheard one of the smallest kids in his school saying that he did not want to hang up his drawing because it was just a scribble. Jimmy leaned over and said to the little boy: Post it, your scribble does matter"* (Goodman, 2015, p. 1).

In an article written by Brackett and Rivers (2014) on *'Preventing bullying with emotional intelligence',* they argued that children who experience feelings of anxiety, jealousy and hopelessness often lack emotional understanding and self-regulation which are important for building and maintaining healthy relationships, making sound decisions and performing well at school.

Lacking emotional understanding and self-regulation were also found to be key factors in the development of bullying behaviour which can manifest in different ways including, verbal abuse, physical aggression, isolation and cyberbullying (Brackett & Rivers, 2014; Kokkinos & Kipritsi, 2011).

Emotional intelligence is described as a range of skills that can be taught to children of all ages. It can be defined as a set of competencies demonstrating the ability one has to express and control your emotions, recognise your own behaviours, moods, and impulses, and manage them best according to the situation by responding with appropriate emotions and behaviours (Brackett & Rivers, 2014; Poskey, n.d.). Understanding yourself is viewed an important prerequisite in understanding others. However, understanding the self and others is important in forming and maintaining healthy relationships. Friends can provide protection and support when a child is the victim of bullying and they can serve as protection against a child becoming

a bully. A child who is accepted by his or her peers will be less anxious, less jealous and will achieve good marks (Brackett & Rivers, 2014).

The importance of boosting a learner's emotional intelligence and teaching them to be more empathic towards other learners is viewed as an important foundation in preventing bullying in schools (Brackett & Rivers, 2014; Lee, 2015). Literature showed that the fulfilment of learners' own needs should first be met before they will develop the ability to be empathetic towards others (Lee, 2015). Children must be able to count on their primary care-givers in providing them with emotional support before they will develop the ability to be supportive towards others. According to Lee (2015), an emotionally intelligent learner will have a better understanding of the meaning of empathy and will therefore understand the importance of being empathic towards others.

From the above and evident from previous research, it appears that emotional intelligence enhancement in children may lead to children gaining a better understanding of themselves and others and it may be the key to alleviate bullying in primary schools and throughout life.

4.8 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE FAMILY

Miller (1990) emphasised that babies come into the world with many needs and they rely totally on their primary caregivers to respond appropriately to their needs. Some of the needs may include to be physically cared for, to be responded to with human affection and to be optimally loved, stimulated and taught. When these needs of a baby are not met, this will interfere with his or her ability to feel and regulate his or her own feelings and emotions. Babies who are not emotionally taken care of by their primary caregivers will only have one resource, namely to suppress their feelings of distress which according to Miller is synonymous to damaging the baby's soul.

Miller (1990) stated that a parent must have certain competencies in order to attend to the needs of a baby. These competencies may include good communication skills, patience, goal-setting abilities and the ability to allow their child to develop a sense of self. These competencies will depend on the parents own level of emotional intelligence.

Studies on the emotional intelligence skills of parents showed that children who are raised by parents who lack emotional intelligence struggle due to the following reasons:

- Parents lack the ability to identify their own emotions.

- Parents lack the ability to teach children how to manage and control their emotions as they are unable to control and manage their own.
- Parents do not understand emotions and therefore give their children the wrong impression about themselves and the world they live in through their words and behaviour (Webb, 2015).

4.9 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN THE SCHOOL CONTEXT

Most schools aim to ensure that learners master basic skills such as reading, writing and mathematics and that this learning takes place in a violence free school and classroom environment (Brackett & Katulak, 2007; Brackett & Salovey, 2004). However, basic education and the safety of the school and classroom environment are being interrupted by disruptive behaviour such as bullying (Centre for Justice and Crime Prevention, 2012). In order to effectively manage the classroom, it is important to consider the factors that may cause the learners to behave in a disruptive manner.

Many local and international schools became aware of the important role social and emotional skills play in enhancing teacher, learner and peer relationships. Therefore, instead of only focusing on the enhancement of academic performance, schools are now also focusing on enhancing the social and emotional skills of both educators and learners (Brackett & Katulak, 2007; Busch & Oakley, 2017; Rivers, 2014).

Research on emotional intelligence in the classroom, indicates that social and emotional skills are associated with success in various areas of life, including quality peer relationships, better academic performance, better teaching, creation of a caring learning environment and teaching learners to apply social and emotional skills both in and out of school (Brackett & Katulak, 2007). Brackett and Rivers (2014) stated that children who are equipped with emotional intelligence skills are less anxious, depressed, achieve higher academic results and the bullying in the class also decreases.

Substantial research indicates that emotional intelligence plays a more important role in children's social, personal and academic lives than general intelligence and personality (Brackett & Katulak, 2007). Brackett and Katulak (2007) stated that attention is driven by emotions, which have an impact on learning, memory and a child's behaviour. They argue that the ability for children to regulate their emotions can help them to remain focused on class tasks and handle anxiety-arousing situations. Further, research on emotional intelligence in the classroom indicates that children with higher emotional intelligence tend to behave in more

socially acceptable, non-aggressive ways in class and on the school grounds (Brackett & Katulak, 2007; Buckley, Storino & Saarni, 2003; Busch & Oakley, 2017). Studies on the importance of emotional intelligence emphasised the importance of teachers developing their own emotional intelligence skills before they can attempt to develop the emotional intelligence skills of the learners (Yin, Lee, Shang, & Jin, 2013).

The above statement is supported by Jennings and Greenberg (2009) who developed the Pro-social Classroom Model to highlight the importance of teachers' emotional intelligence skills and well-being in the development and maintenance of teacher-learner relationships, effective classroom management and the development of the learner's emotional intelligence. According to Jennings and Greenberg, all these factors will ultimately lead to a healthy classroom environment. The model is shown in Figure 4.3.

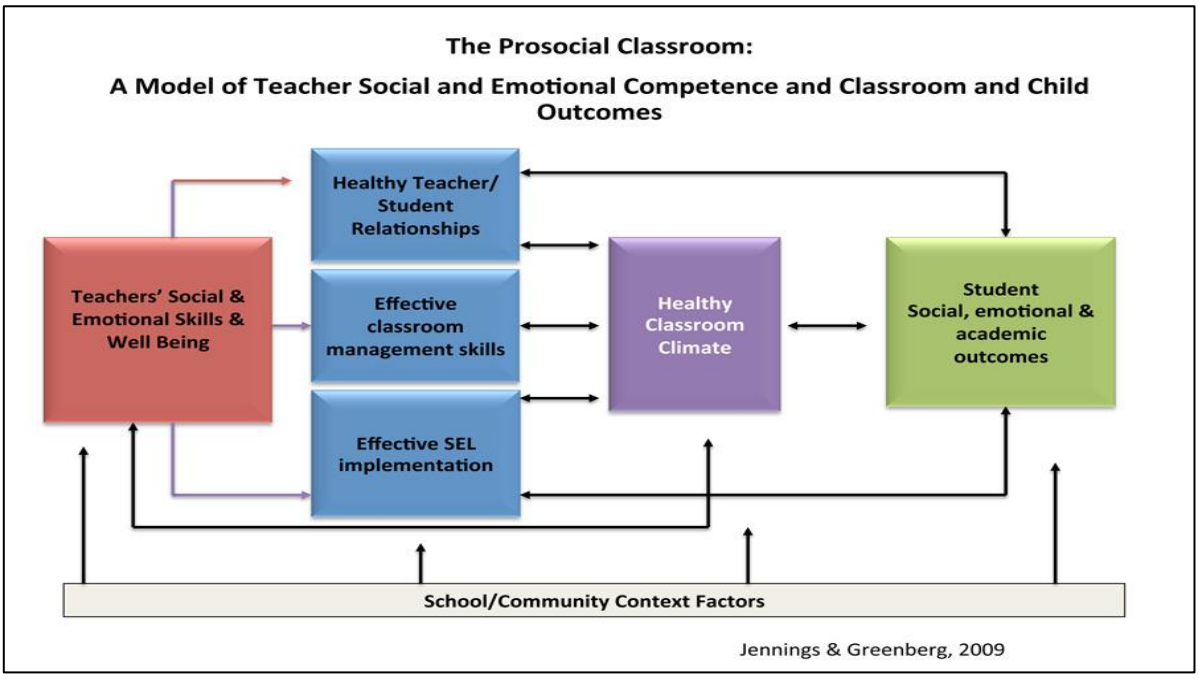

Figure 4.3. **The Pro-social Classroom Model.** Retrieved from https://www.seltedconsortium.com

Emotionally intelligent teachers can convey a sense of caring for their learners and therefore tend to create an emotional climate in the classroom that may enhance learning, improve the learning environment, reduce peer conflict and create a more desirable teaching situation. Therefore, unless teachers enhance the emotional intelligence and social skills of the learners, learners might pass from one teacher to another, ill-equipped to deal with those inappropriate,

aggressive or bullying types of behaviours (Jennings & Greenberger 2009; de Klerk & le Roux, 2003).

Goleman (1996) identified three elements that may give rise to classroom confrontation between teachers and their learners. Firstly, a lack of clarity of what is expected of the learners' behaviour and performance. Secondly, learners who lack empathy and social skills may misinterpret their teachers' intentions and normal interactions may be perceived as confrontational and stimulate an aggressive response from the learner. Thirdly, teachers may often react to the learner's reputation rather than to the actual level of disruption that is taking place in the classroom, especially when the teacher's emotional intelligence is not well developed.

When teachers develop their emotional intelligence, it is suggested that they should focus on the five emotional competencies namely, self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy and relationship skills (Goleman, 1996).

Self-awareness in a teacher is described as the ability to be in touch or to understand your own emotions (Dolev & Leshem, 2016; Gold & Roth, 1993; Goleman, 1998). Self-awareness forms part of the intrapersonal competencies of emotional intelligence. Dolev and Leshem (2016) stated that teaching is an emotional profession where teachers are faced with many challenges on a daily basis. Some of these challenges may include learners misbehaving in class and on the playground, workload and the ability to maintain a healthy emotional intelligent classroom climate where academic learning and personal growth of the learners can take place.

Teachers who are self-aware are found to be the ones who can deal with these challenges and are able to ensure that successful teaching will take place in their classroom (Dolev & Leshem, 2016; Goleman, 1998; Stein & Book, 2006). Further, research indicated that teachers who are self-aware will have the ability to identify the impact their learners have on their emotions both positively and negatively and the impact their own behaviour has on their learners. In developing a competency, a teacher must be willing to take risks and learn through trial and error. An emotionally intelligent teacher, who is competent in self-awareness, will do regular introspection to determine whether their own behaviours have a negative or positive impact on their own personal and professional growth (Goleman, 1998; Gold & Roth, 1993). Moreover, self-awareness enables teachers to deal with and respond to learners who are disruptive in a more appropriate and calm manner (Dolev & Leshem, 2016, p. 77; Gold &

Roth, 1993; Goleman, 1995; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Self-awareness is thus the competency that will ensure that a teacher experiences job satisfaction and decreases burn-out. Teachers with low self-awareness will be unaware of how they are perceived by their learners.

Teachers are not only expected to equip learners with the necessary skills and knowledge they need to be successful in the future, they are also faced with emotionally provocative situations such as misconduct of learners and child abuse or neglect (Jennings & Greenberger, 2009). Teachers are experiencing more and more stress and burn-out as a result of the many challenges they are faced with. It is therefore important for teachers to be equipped with competencies that will assist them in finding a way to cope with the many challenges. Self-regulation is defined as the ability of a teacher to deal with disruptive behaviours such as anger and fear and being able to cope when having to make choices in a crisis (Ergur, 2009). Teachers are expected to deal with any situation in their classrooms. Studies indicated that non-regulated behaviour of teachers contributed to children experiencing the classroom and classroom environment as unsafe (Ergur, 2009). It is thus important for teachers to have high levels of self-regulation as this will enable them to deal with emotionally provocative situations. As discussed in Chapter 2, Bandura (1963) stated that children model the behaviour of their role models. Teachers serve as the role models of children in the classroom and therefore it is important for them to set an example of how to express appropriate social and emotional behaviour when dealing with emotionally provocative situations. According to Ergur (2009) teachers with a high level of self-regulation will be able to manage their behaviour in the challenging classroom and will be able to build trusting relationships with their learners.

Motivation is considered one of the most important competencies a teacher should have. As mentioned earlier, teaching is an emotional career with many challenges. For a teacher to get up every morning and be ready to face any challenge coming their way, being motivated is the key to being able to deal with the challenges, enjoy their job and ensure that the learners in their classes are also motivated. Studies indicated that highly motivated teachers enjoy their profession and will make sure that learners enjoy school. Motivation is contagious and therefore if the teacher is motivated then the learner will also be motivated (Ergur, 2009; Gold & Roth, 1993; Goleman, 1998).

Empathy can be defined as an individual's capacity to understand the emotions of others. It is characterised as the ability to put yourself in another person's shoes and imagine how you would have felt being faced with the same situation or experiencing the same emotions. Empathy should characterise all teachers and other professional people who work with

children. In the classroom teachers have learners who come from diverse backgrounds. An empathetic teacher will be able to deal with all his or her learners and their diverse backgrounds effectively as they are able to build caring relationships with their learners. As the teacher is the role model, the learners will in turn be motivated to act in an empathetic manner towards their peers. This will lead to better classroom climate and management, a decrease in misconduct, motivated learners and better academic performance (Goleman, 1998; Gottman, 2000; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009; Brackett, Reyes, Rivers, Elbertson, & Salovey, 2011). Empathy can be developed in a classroom when teachers encourage their learners to communicate their feelings and emotions and share their ideas. This leads to teaching being more interactive as it allows for learner involvement.

Social and relationship skills of a teacher include good communication, understanding the needs and emotions of the learners and good classroom management (Goleman, 1998). A goal of teaching is to impart new knowledge however, it is of no use if learners have trouble receiving the knowledge. A teacher with good social skills will be able to deal with critique and therefore they will ask their learners to provide regular feedback on their teaching methods and strategies to ensure that the learners fully understand what the teacher is trying to put across. Further, it is important for a teacher to attend to the verbal and non-verbal body language of the learners. Attending to the body language will enable the teacher to determine whether the learners understand the information given to them or if they are confused. Body language of the learners can also tell the teacher if learners are uninterested or if the information bores them (Gold & Roth, 1993). Teachers with good social skills will be able to be flexible in their methodology and teaching strategies to ensure that these meet the expectations of their learners (Gold & Roth, 1993; Goleman, 1998).

As stated earlier, teachers have learners with different needs in their classes. Teachers who have high social and relationship skills will better be able to manage the learners in their classes, as they will know which learners are internally motivated and will not require external rewards or reinforcement, and which learners will perform better when they are rewarded or receive reinforcement. Knowing and understanding each learner in the class will in turn create an effective teaching and an emotional safe and positive classroom environment (Gold & Roth, 1993; Goleman, 1998a; Goleman, 1998b; Long, Morse, & Newman, 1996; Richardson, 2001). Teachers with high levels of emotional intelligence will function according to the cognitive, social and emotional qualities of emotional intelligence summarised in Table 4.2 (next page).

Table 4.2

Cognitive, Social and Emotional Qualities of Emotionally Competent Teachers

Cognitive behaviour	Affective behaviour	Social behaviour
1) Talks to learners professionally and doesn't shout at them	1) Kindly and friendly greets learners (happiness)	1) Can communicate with learners and listens to their problems (communication/listening/empathy)
2) Is not loud (emotional awareness / self-control)	2) Speaks gently and kindly (happiness / kindness / friendliness)	2) Talks softly (politely) to enable learners to feel treated with respect (tone of voice/respect)
3) Keeps a smile on his/her face every time he/she talks to learners (self-control)	3) A teacher who is friendly (happiness)	3) Greets learners with a smile and does not call them bad names (body language / tone of voice / respect)
4) Leaves his/her problem where he/she started it, and treats learners in a friendly manner (self-control)	4) Guides learners towards a better future (optimism)	4) Using encouraging and motivating words (social responsibility)
5) Has discipline in the class (assertiveness)	5) Always looks forward to teaching his/her learners (enthusiasm)	5) Smiles at learners and sometimes makes a good joke (body language / humour)
6) Is firm and strict (assertiveness)	6) Lifts learners' spirit (enthusiasm)	6) Uses words such as "good luck", "we can do it" (language patterns)
	7) Has lots of energy (liveliness/ energy)	7) Use of "we" is very important (language patterns)
	8) Is active (liveliness/energy)	8) Respects learners and does not judge them (respect / unconditional acceptance)
	9) Has a positive attitude towards others (positive attitude)	9) Is open to questions being asked by learners (empathy/openness)
		10) Teach in a manner that makes learners feel understood (empathy)
		11) Willing to help learners to find solutions (openness / social responsibility)

Note. Adapted from Jennings & Greenberger, 2009

In conclusion, schools, teachers and the classroom play an important role in the development of children. A growing body of research findings emphasise the need for a shift in education from solely focusing on academic performance and enhancement to including the enhancement of learners' social and emotional intelligence skills for better classroom and behaviour management (Brackett et al., 2011; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). When teachers have high emotional intelligence skills, they will create a classroom environment that will be supportive and attentive to the needs and emotions of learners. Classroom emotional climate is

important for behaviour management in a classroom. A positive classroom climate is characterised by low levels of conflict and disruptive behaviour, appropriate expressions of emotions, respectful communication between teachers and learners and learners and their peers and good problem-solving skills (Brackett et al., 2011; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009).

4.10 TEACHING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

When teachers develop their own emotional intelligence skills, they will ensure that learning and social development will take place in an emotional safe classroom environment. Only after this can the teacher focus on the development of the learners' emotional intelligence skills.

Researchers pointed out various aspects that need to be taken in consideration when planning the development of the emotional intelligence skills of the learners. It is important for teachers to bear in mind that children are unique in how they learn and therefore they should include various learning styles such as visual, auditory and kinaesthetic (de Klerk & le Roux, 2003). It is also important to include learners in the process as this will create a sense of belonging. The first step when teaching emotional intelligence is to ensure that learners understand the meaning of emotions and the different types of emotions.

4.10.1 The importance of understanding emotions

Literature showed that emotions are part of human nature and that they provide individuals with information about what they are experiencing. An individual, who is aware of and has a good understanding of the different emotions that can be experienced, will be able to deal with these emotions in a healthy manner. The role of emotions is not just to assist individuals in gaining a better understanding themselves, it also guides other individuals in gaining a better understanding of the individual they are interacting with (de Klerk & le Roux, 2003).

When children understand emotions and that their emotions can vary in intensity and can be combined with other emotions, it will be easier for them to become aware of their own emotions. The psychologist, Robert Plutchik (1980) created the psycho-evolutionary theory of emotion as a guide in understanding emotions. He also created the wheel of emotions as illustrated in Figure 4.4 (next page) to show the various relationships among emotions.

Figure 4.4. **Plutchik's Wheel of Emotions.** Adapted from https://www.6seconds.org/2017/04/27/plutchiks-model-of-emotions/

According to Plutchik (1980), emotions are not just a feeling state but rather a chain of loosely connected events that includes feelings, psychological changes, impulses to action and specific goal-directed behaviour (Plutchik, 1980). Plutchik (1980) stated that each of the eight basic emotions contains a message that can aid individuals in making appropriate decisions for various situations. These are:

- *Sadness* – The message is to connect individuals with those who they care about and love dearly.
- *Fear* – The message is that the individual must realise that something needs to change.
- *Anger* – The message is that individuals should not give up but rather fight against the different problems they must face on a daily basis.
- *Joy* – The message is that individuals should remind themselves of what is important and what they cannot change or fix.
- *Acceptance* – The messages is to not build walls around our hearts but to open it for those around us.
- *Surprise* – The message is to focus on any new situations.

- *Disgust* – The message is to let go of the things that cannot be changed and to reject all things that are negative.
- *Anticipation* – The message is to set goals and not to dwell on the past.

During the pre-primary and primary school years, children do not only grow physically, they also grow socially by learning how to build relationships with friends, emotionally by experiencing and responding to different feelings and emotions and cognitively by learning new academic skills. Children's response to the different challenges and emotions they experience and are faced with every day has a major impact on their behaviour, the choices they make and how successful they will be in the future. Thus, teaching children about the different emotions, why they happen and how they can manage them is extremely important as it will help children to gain a better understanding and managing of not only their own emotions but also those of others they are interacting with daily. When children have a good understanding of emotions, they will be capable of developing effective ways of recognising and managing their own emotions as well as those of other. Understanding emotions ultimately leads to development of emotional intelligence skills (Malecki & Elliot, 2002; Plutchik, 2001).

4.10.2 Developing the emotional intelligence of learners

When developing the emotional intelligence of the learners, it is important for teachers to first define emotional intelligence and to explain how emotional intelligence competencies are developed. Using the five competencies proposed by Goleman (1995, 1997) may assist in this process. Gaining a better understanding of emotions is viewed as a prerequisite for the development of emotional intelligence skills in children. Becoming aware of the important role emotional intelligence plays in academic and personal growth may motivate children to develop their emotional intelligence skills (Brackett & Rivers, 2014). Teachers should also emphasise the importance of being emotionally intelligent in dealing with and controlling their own emotions and dealing with the emotions of other learners. Emotional intelligence training is especially important in classrooms where teachers and learners are faced with learners who engage in disruptive, violent and bullying behaviour. Teaching emotional intelligence skills will equip victims of bullying with skills to deal with bullies and enhancing the emotional intelligence skills of bullies can lead to a decrease in bullying behaviour (Brackett et al., 2011; de Klerk & le Roux, 2003; Dolev & Leshem, 2016; Rivers, 2014).

Teachers should consider the context and strategies to reduce confrontation when developing a programme to improve the emotional intelligence skills of disruptive or

aggressive learners who act violently. When dealing with difficult learners, the school must ensure that a supportive school environment policy is in place, which will allow all learners to develop socially, emotionally, physically and intellectually. The candidate argues that the school curriculum must be structured in a way that will allow for the different needs of learners to be met and, all achievements to be recognised. The school policy must include the importance of a supportive and friendly classroom environment or climate where learning and development is the result of a trust relationship between the teacher and his or her learners (Sullivan, 2017).

4.10.3 The importance of the developmental age when teaching emotional intelligence

Before teaching children about emotions, it is important to take the child's age and stage of development in consideration as this will assist in determining their level of understanding and how an emotion is experienced at an age or stage. Researchers argued that emotional development is a complex task that already develops in infancy and continues into adulthood (Saarni, 2011). Saarni (2011) provided markers for emotional development at different ages which is shown in Table 4.3 (next page).

According to Denham (2007, p. 1):

"Emotional competence includes expressing emotions that are, or are not, experienced, regulating emotions in ways that are age and socially appropriate and decoding these processes in self and others."

Denham stated that one of the most important developmental tasks of a pre-school child is to achieve the ability to build positive relationships with their peers while managing their emotional arousals within the interaction with them. When they become involved in arguments, it must be resolved in order to ensure sustained interaction between them. Teachers and other professionals working with children should understand that primary school children between the ages of 7 and 13 are still in the process of learning to identify the different emotions, to gain an understanding of why they are experiencing these different emotions and to effectively manage the different emotions (Denham, 2007; Rivers, 2014). Children's emotional experience may include various components namely, joy, physical responses such as heart rate or that butterfly feeling in the stomach, feelings children start to recognise and name, thoughts and judgements associated with the different emotions and action signals such as the desire to approach, fight or flight (Denham, 2007; Saarni, 2011).

Table 4.3

Noteworthy Markers of Emotional Development

Age Period	Regulation/Coping	Expressive Behaviour	Relationship Building
Infancy: 0 - 12 months	Self-soothing and learning to modulate reactivity. Regulation of attention in service of coordinated action. Reliance on caregivers for supportive "scaffolding" during stressful circumstances.	Behaviour synchrony with others in some expressive channels. Increasing discrimination of others' expressions. Increasing expressive responsiveness to stimuli under contingent control. Increasing coordination of expressive behaviours with emotion-eliciting circumstances.	Social games (e.g., "peek-a-boo"). Social referencing. Socially instrumental signal use (e.g., "fake" crying to get attention).
Toddlerhood: 12 months - 2½ years	Emergence of self-awareness and consciousness of own emotional response. Irritability due to constraints and limits imposed on expanding autonomy and exploration needs.	Self-evaluation and self-consciousness evident in expressive behaviour accompanying shame, pride, coyness. Increasing verbal comprehension and production of words for expressive behaviour and affective states.	Anticipation of different feelings toward different people. Increasing discrimination of others' emotions and their meaningfulness. Early forms of empathy and prosocial action.
Preschool: 2-5 years	Symbolic access facilitates emotion regulation, but symbols can also provoke distress. Communication with others extends child's evaluation of and awareness of own feelings and of emotion-eliciting events.	Adoption of pretend expressive behaviour in play and teasing. Pragmatic awareness that "false" facial expressions can mislead another about one's feelings.	Communication with others elaborates child's understanding of social transactions and expectations for comportment. Sympathetic and prosocial behaviour toward peers. Increasing insight into others' emotions.
Early Elementary School: 5-7 years	Self-conscious emotions (e.g., embarrassment) are targeted for regulation. Seeking support from caregiver's still prominent coping strategy but increasing reliance on situational problem-solving evident.	Adoption of "cool emotional front" with peers.	Increasing coordination of social skills with one's own and others' emotions. Early understanding of consensually agreed upon emotion "scripts."

continues on next page …

Age Period	Regulation/Coping	Expressive Behaviour	Relationship Building
Middle Childhood: 7-10 years	Problem-solving preferred coping strategy if control is at least moderate. Distancing strategies used if control is appraised as minimal.	Appreciation of norms for expressive behaviour, whether genuine or dissembled. Use of expressive behaviour to modulate relationship dynamics (e.g., smiling while reproaching a friend).	Awareness of multiple emotions toward the same person. Use of multiple time frames and unique personal information about another as aids in the development of close friendships.
Pre-adolescence: 10-13 years	Increasing accuracy in appraisal of realistic control in stressful circumstances. Capable of generating multiple solutions and differentiated strategies for dealing with stress.	Distinction made between genuine emotional expression with close friends and managed displays with others.	Increasing social sensitivity and awareness of emotion "scripts" in conjunction with social roles.
Adolescence: 13+ years	Awareness of one's own emotion cycles (e.g., guilt about feeling angry) facilitates insightful coping. Increasing integration of moral character and personal philosophy in dealing with stress and subsequent decisions.	Skilful adoption of self-presentation strategies for impression management.	Awareness of mutual and reciprocal communication of emotions as affecting quality of relationship.

Note. Saarni, 2011, p. 2. Adapted from http://www.child-encyclopedia.com/emotions/ according-experts/emotional-development-childhood

In the process of developing children's emotional skills, it is important to note that emotional skills development in children can vary. Thus, emotional skills development does not only mean the development of the understanding, identification and management of the children's own emotions, it also includes the development of the understanding, identification and management of the emotions of others (Saarni, 2011). Various studies on emotional skill development in children suggested that children require various skills. Firstly, they need to develop the skill of self-awareness. This means they must develop the ability to become aware of their own emotions they are experiencing daily. Secondly, they must develop the ability to recognise, understand and name their emotions and lastly, they must develop the ability to effectively identify, name, understand and manage their emotions as well as those of others (Denham, 1998; Denham, 2007; Saarni, 2011).

Further, it is important to note that children are unique and therefore they will also express and manage their emotions in unique ways. Variations in the management and expression of emotions may be influenced by various factors such as the child's temperament or family and cultural values. Children will only express the emotions that are considered appropriate and acceptable by their family or culture. These differences will also have an influence on how children will learn to regulate their emotions and have more locus of control.

In the field of psychology, the term "locus of control" is defined as the extent to which individuals experience themselves as being in control of their experiences and the events that takes place in their lives (Fournier, 2018; Rotter, 1966; Schepers, Gropp & Geldenhuys, 2006; Williams & Stout, 2012). An individual who is viewed by others as having internal locus of control appears to be in control of their lives, believing that they can choose how their experiences will affect their lives. In contrast to individuals with internal locus of control, individuals with external locus of control will not have the ability to take responsibility for their actions and they will not appear to be in control of their lives as they believe that external forces are the cause of what happens to them. Locus of control implies that people's locus is not 100% internal or 100% external – it sometimes lies somewhere in between and it tends to one or the other side. It is clear from the above that misbehaviour can be linked directly to learners who experience no control over their circumstances. Therefore, they function from a frame of reference of an external locus of control. The opposite is just as true: learners who have control over their circumstances do not find it necessary to react aggressively to difficult circumstances, because they exercise internal locus of control (Fournier, 2018; Rotter, 1966; Schepers, Gropp & Geldenhuys, 2006; Williams & Stout, 2012).

Research suggests that learners who believe that they cannot control the outcomes associated with their behaviour have external locus of control and are found to engage in delinquent behaviour such as fighting (Ahlin & Antunes, 2015; Fournier, 2018).

In a classroom, teachers help learners to effectuate a better internal locus of control and support their learners to develop higher levels of emotional intelligence. The combination of internal locus of control and higher levels of emotional intelligence would ultimately improve the scholastic performance of learners and decrease violence in the school context (Kumar, 2016; Oluseyi Akintunde, & Olusegun Olujide, 2018).

As discussed above, the ability of children to regulate their emotions may be influenced by the values of their family and culture. Another factor added by researchers such as Campos,

Campos, and Barrett (1989) and Rothbart and Sheese (2007) is the ability of children to regulate their emotions included the emotional temperament of a child.

4.10.4 Influence of a child's temperament when teaching emotional intelligence

The term 'temperament' refers to mental, physical and emotional traits of an individual which can be recognised a few weeks after birth (Reber, 1995; Rothbart, 2007; Rothbart, Ahadi, & Evans, 2000; Zeanah & Fox, 2004). According to Reber (1995) temperament can be conceptualised as a genetic disposition because of differences in reactivity to stimulation including loud noises, bright light, physical contact and sudden movement are recognisable in infants.

The emotional temperament of a child as described by Karr-Morse and Wiley (1997), Thomas, Chess, and Birch (1970) and Hughes and Shewchuk (2012) consists of nine traits including, activity level, approach or withdrawal, adaptability, sensory sensitivity, intensity of reaction, distractibility, persistence, quality of mood and regularity. These traits describe the uniqueness of children and how they will react to the world they live in.

Activity level: Activity level refers to how physically active a child is when performing an activity. Some children can be very active and engaged in an activity. These children also tend to switch from one activity to another in a short period of time. This may result in being experienced by others as disruptive. When a task that requires a slower approach must be completed by a child with high activity levels, researchers found that they may have trouble remaining seated. Children with lower activity levels will choose to be involved in activities that require a slower approach. Researchers found that these children experience less difficulty in remaining seated and focused on the activity at hand (Ersoz, Altindag, Ab-Bak, & Albayrak, 2017).

Approach and withdrawal: Approach and withdrawal refer to the ability of a child to adapt to change with ease. Researchers found that some children are more open to change and can adapt to changes easier than others. A child identified by a withdrawing style may require more time to warm up to new situations and may adapt slower to change (Kagan, 2010; Kagan & Snidman, 1991; Sullivan, 2014).

Adaptability: Adaptability can be linked to approach and withdrawal as it describes the ability of a child to adjust to change. Highly adaptable children are described as flexible and they can move from one activity to another in a short period of time without being negatively

affected by the transition. Children who are less flexible may have trouble adapting to any form of change (Kagan, 2010; Kristal, 2005; Rymanowicz, 2017).

Environmental stimuli: Children can differ in how they react to their environment. Some children are described as highly sensitive to factors in their environment whereas other children may be less sensitive to environmental stimuli such as textures and sounds. Highly sensitive children may be easily distracted by the type of lights in for example their bedroom or classroom. Other children may be distracted by sounds. This can include a truck passing by or the noise made by children who are moving from one class to another. Researchers found that highly sensitive children will react to stimuli in their environment that may go unnoticed by less sensitive children. Children with low sensitivity are not easily affected by external stimuli such as sound (Thomas et al., 2017, Rymanowicz, 2017).

Emotional sensitivity: Another form of sensitivity involves emotional sensitivity. Emotional sensitivity refers to the difficulty or ease with which children respond emotionally to various situations they are faced within their environment (van Zutphen, Siep, Jacob, Domes, Sprenger, Willenborg, Goebel, Tüscher, & Arntz, 2015).

Intensity of reaction: Intensity of reaction can be linked to sensitivity as it refers to the level of reaction to different situations. Children who are described as intense will react in a powerful manner to different situations and aspects in life. Researchers found that when something negative happens in the life of highly intense children, such as not being able to wear their favourite clothing, they may react negatively by refusing to leave their home. People often react in an unsympathetic manner towards these children as they label their reactions as dramatic. In contrast to the highly intensive child, children with low intensity will react to negative situations in a less dramatic manner. Although these children may be able to cope better in negative situations, researchers found that it is often difficult to recognise the true feeling of a low intensity child (Rymanowicz, 2017).

Distractibility: Distractibility can be linked to sensitivity and influence of environmental stimuli as it refers to how sensitive a child is to the environmental stimuli and how easily a child can be distracted by the stimuli in the environment. Highly distractible children can be identified by their approach when completing an activity. These children have trouble in focusing on the task at hand and will therefore tend to shift their attention from one task to another. The highly distractible child will therefore be affected by the external stimuli in his or her environment and will have trouble concentrating in a noisy environment. Children with

low distractibility are found to be better adaptable to any environment and be less affected by external stimuli such as noise (Karr-Morse & Wiley, 1997; Thomas et al., 1970; Rymanowicz, 2017).

Persistence: Persistence refers to the ability of a learner to remain focused on a task and the willingness of the learner to complete the task regardless of the level of difficulty (Karr-Morse & Wiley, 1997; Thomas et al., 1970). For example, children who are persistent will remain focused on a task until it is completed. These children are characterised by their perseverance and dedication. When faced with a challenging task, the persistent child will rarely become frustrated or feel too overwhelmed by the task. They will rather use their frustration as motivation to complete the task. Children with low persistence are more likely to move on to a next task when they find the current task too challenging. When they feel overwhelmed or become frustrated, they will often request adult assistance or even allow the task to be completed by the adult (Rymanowicz, 2017; Yagmurlu & Altan, 2009).

Mood: Mood refers to the overall "tone" of a child's feelings, interactions and behaviours. Some children are dis-positioned to experience life more positively than others. Children who are naturally more positive are perceived by others as "warm" and "happy". Researchers found that happy children are better able to deal with disappointments and difficulties they are faced with than children who have a negative outlook on life. Children who are naturally more negative tend to be perceived by others as less approachable, sad and gloomy. They can experience feelings of happiness although they may not express these feelings externally (Karr-Morse & Wiley, 1997; Thomas et al., 1970; Zalewski, Lengua, Trancik, Wilson, & Bazinet, 2011).

Regularity: Regularity refers to the biological rhythms of individuals and children. These rhythms include internal drives such as eating, sleeping and toilet routines. Children with regular rhythms will react positively to routines. They will prefer to eat their meals and snacks at the same time every day. They will rarely have trouble falling asleep and they will often also have a set routine for going to the toilet. However, children characterised by irregular rhythms will find it difficult to follow a daily routine as they may not feel hungry or sleepy at the same time and they may not need to go to the toilet at the same time every day (Karr-Morse & Wiley, 1997; Sèguin & MacDonald, 2015; Thomas et al., 1970; Zalewski et al., 2011).

Thomas et al. (1970) pointed out that children can fall in one or more of the following three categories of temperament namely, flexible-easy going children, difficult children and slow-to-warm up children.

The flexible-easy going children are described as having regular body rhythms, being high in adaptability and having a positive general mood. He explained that these children will only be perceived by others as difficult when they are placed in situations that require them to respond in ways that are inconsistent with what they have learned from their parents or other important role players in their lives.

The difficult child is described as the opposite of the flexible-easy going child. These children show irregular eating, sleeping and elimination cycles. They also respond negatively to new situations and are slow to adapt to any form of change. Most of the problems experienced by these children may result from expectations set by the child's immediate environment including the parents, family and teachers. Thomas et al. (1970) stated that when these children are forced to become involved in a situation that may be experienced as challenging, they may become frustrated and overwhelmed showing oppositional and aggressive behaviour.

In conclusion, disruptive behaviour can seriously impede a learner's academic and social process and therefore it is extremely important for teachers to create a safe environment where difficult learners may not feel threatened. Enhancing the difficult learner's emotional intelligence skills will not only help improve their academic performance, it will also help to develop their interpersonal and intrapersonal skills which will assist these learners in acting in a more socially acceptable manner in the classroom and on the playground.

4.11 SYSTEMATIC REVIEW OF PREVIOUS INTERNATIONAL PREVENTION AND ANTI-BULLYING INTERVENTION PROGRAMMES IN SCHOOLS

Bullying is a serious problem in society, and it appears to affect children around the world. As bullying can be traced back to early childhood, it is important to start with early prevention (Olweus, 1993, 1995). Due to the impact of bullying behaviour on children, anti-bullying intervention and prevention programme development became important over the past decades to protect children in the school context. Bullying intervention and prevention programmes have been shown to be effective in reducing bullying in the school context. However, it appears that bullying seems to continue pervading our schools despite the number of interventions that

have been implemented in schools (Smith & Ananiadou, 2003; Smith, Morita, Junger-Tas, Olweus, Catalano, & Slee, 1999).

Recent number of reported bullying incidents, with tragic outcomes that took place in South African schools shed a renewed light on this issue and a call for development of new and more intensive intervention plans. Before developing a new programme, it is important to review the literature on previous programmes to gain insight on what "worked" and what needs amendment (Smith, Bauman, & Wong, 2019).

In the next section different intervention programmes are distinguished and described. Emphasis will be placed on the EI skills included in the programmes and the effect of the various programmes.

4.11.1 Olweus Bullying Prevention Programme (OBPP) (Norway)

"For countless generations children have been teasing, harassing and bullying each other. Sometimes it was done purely for fun, sometimes in deadly earnest, to the amusement, horror or indifference of others, whether they be parents, educators or peers" (Olweus, 1993, p. 1).

The first attempt to research the phenomenon of bullying and ways to effectively address this problem was done by Dr Dan Olweus a research professor of psychology in Norway. In the 1970's Olweus initiated the world's first systematic bullying research. He spent decades researching bullying behaviour occurring in the school environment to allow children to receive education in a safe school environment. The results of this study were published in 1978 in a book titled *Aggression in Schools: Bullies and Whipping boys*. Olweus became known for his widely adopted bullying prevention programme known as the Olweus Bullying Prevention Programme (OBPP).

4.11.1.1 Programme development

Olweus viewed school safety as a fundamental human right and therefore focused his studies on reducing bullying behaviour in schools in order to ensure a safe school environment for both teachers and learners (Olweus, 1993). In 1981 he proposed that a law against bullying occurring in schools should be enacted to ensure the safety of teachers and learners and in 1990 his arguments led to the development of the legislation against bullying in schools by the Swedish and Norwegian parliaments (Olweus, Limber, & Mihalic, 1999).

In 1983 as a result of enduring severe bullying by their peers three Norwegian boys committed suicide. Following this incident, the Ministry of Education initiated a national

campaign against bullying occurring in the school context. As a result of this traumatic incident the first version of the OBPP was developed.

The main goals of the programme included reducing bullying among learners in the school context, prevention of the development of any new forms of bullying behaviour, and better relationship building between peers (Olweus, 1993; Olweus et al.,1999;). Reaching these specific goals involved the restructuring of the environment of the school. The intention of restructuring the school environment was an attempt to reduce the opportunities for learners to engage in bullying behaviour and to build a sense of community amongst the teachers and the learners (Olweus, 1999).

Olweus based his OBPP programme on four key principles. The first principle required teachers to be approachable and show a positive interest in their learners' lives. The second principle stated that teachers must set firm limits to any unacceptable behaviour displayed by a learner or learners. The third principle focused on approaches that should be used by teachers when a rule has been broken in the class. These approaches include the use of non-corporal and non-hostile punishment. The fourth and final principle expressed the importance of teachers functioning as effective authority figures and positive role models (Olweus et al., 1999). These principles have been translated into specific measures to be used by schools, in the classroom, by individuals and in other contexts such as the community.

4.11.1.2 Initial implementation and evaluation of the OBPP

The OBPP was first implemented and carefully evaluated in a large-scale Bergen Project against Bullying. This project formed part of a nationwide campaign against bullying in schools and therefore it was not possible to set up a pure experimental study where schools and classes could be randomly selected for treatment and control groups to be selected for comparisons to be made (Olweus, 2005). A longitudinal study followed approximately 2 500 learners over a period of two and a half years, from 1983 to 1985. However, as stated, the programme formed part of the campaign and as no control and treatment groups could be formed, an extended cohort design was utilised in which same-aged learners from the same schools were compared across three points in time (Limber, Olweus, 1991, 1993, 1997, 2005). At Time 1, during the 1983 – 1984 evaluation, the participants belonged to 112 Grade 5 to 8 classes from 28 elementary and 14 junior high schools in Bergen. The overall number of participants included approximately 1750 participants. The corresponding 1983 – 1985 evaluation consisted of 1210 Grade 7 to 8 learners.

Results in the Bergen Project against bullying showed that after the completion of the programme, fewer students reported being bullied and there was also a decrease in the number of students who reported that they have been bullied by others on the Olweus Bully/Victim Questionnaire. The results in the 1983 – 1984 evaluation showed that only 62 % children reported that they were bullied and only 33% of the bullies bullied other children. Corresponding results from the 1983 – 1985 evaluation revealed a 64% reduction in children being bullied and the number of bullies who stopped bullying others increased by 52.6% (Olweus, 2005). This shows that the OBPP led to a reduction in the number of bullying that occurred and the number of children who bullied others.

The prevention programme was further refined, expanded and evaluated in five additional large-scale projects in Norway. Statistics continued to show positive results in preventing bullying in schools. Since a 2001 initiative by the Norwegian government, the programme has been implemented on a large-scale basis in elementary and secondary schools throughout Norway (Limber, 2004).

Before implementing this programme in schools, the principals can now complete a readiness questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of 16 questions that will assist principals in determining how prepared their schools are for the implementation of the OBPP.

After the completion of the questionnaire, a standard report of the findings is printed and handed to schools. The report provides detailed information (in tables, graphs, and narrative) about the findings, frequently broken down by gender and grade. Schools can then use the results to help raise awareness among the learners, teachers and parents about the problems of bullying occurring in the school. The results can then be used to plan for the implementation of the OBPP (Limber, 2004; Olweus, 2005).

4.11.1.3 Training for implementation of the OBPP

Training for the implementation of the OBPP at a school includes a two-day training programme for all staff members. A certified Olweus trainer provides full day training for each staff member and a one year in-person or telephonic consultation with the co-ordinator at the school. The trainer is available to assist teachers in any problems that may occur and where teachers may not be sure how to solve it accurately (Limber, 2004; Olweus, 2005).

4.11.1.4 Administration of the Olweus Bullying Questionnaire

The Olweus Bullying Questionnaire is published by Hazeldon and administered with the OBPP. This questionnaire cannot be downloaded. It is regarded an important planning tool

before implementing the OBPP in a school. The questionnaire is a validated self-report survey consisting of 40 standard questions that measures learners' experiences with and attitudes towards bullying including cyberbullying (Limber, 2004; Solsberg & Olweus, 2003; Olweus, 2005).

The questionnaire can be completed by Grade 3 to Grade 12 learners however, teachers must ensure that the Grade 3 learners can read accurately. The questionnaire can be administered before the implementation of the programme and at regular intervals after the completion of the programme (Limber, 2004; Olweus, 2005).

4.11.2 Whole School Approach

A whole school approach can be defined as a cohesive, collective and collaborative action in and by the community of a school that has been strategically constructed to improve academic performance, behaviour, well-being and the conditions that support these aspects (Goldberg, Sklad, Elfrink, Schreurs, Bohlmeijer, & Clarke, 2018; Olweus, 1993).

A whole school approach means that the administration staff, educators, learners, parents and the broader community are all included in the process of creating a safe, inclusive and acceptable school environment where bullying problems can be prevented (Goldberg et al, 2018; Olweus, 1994; Vreeman & Carroll, 2007).

The whole school approach has been inspired by the OBPP which is considered the most successful bullying prevention programme in Bergen Norway (Olweus, 1994; Vreeman & Carroll, 2007).

4.11.2.1 Reason for adopting a whole school approach

Olweus (1993) found that schools who adopted a whole school approach experienced significant reductions in bullying occurring. A general improvement in the social climate of these schools was also visible. Research on the whole school approach found that the academic success of learners depended on the ability to build positive relationships with their teachers and peers (Olweus, 2005; Vreeman & Carroll, 2007). When everyone involved in the school environment worked together to ensure that learning takes place in a safe school environment, learners received consistent messages and responses about bullying behaviour that is occurring in the school. These consistent messages and responses can in turn support ways to address the bullying problems and lead to a safer school environment (Limber, 2004; Olweus, 2005; Ttofi & Farrington, 2011).

4.11.2.2 How the whole school approach works

Adults who play an important role in the life of a child are responsible to teach them how to build and maintain positive relationships with the adults and with their peers. It is also their responsibility to teach children about acceptable and socially unacceptable behaviour such as bullying. Parents, caregivers, teachers, family, coaches and guardians model relationships skills and attitudes and create positive situations in which children can interact to learn these valuable skills. In Chapter 2 the work of Bandura regarding learning through observing role models showed that children will only learn positive relationship skills and attitudes if they observe and interact with adults who model positive relationships when interacting with the children (Bandura, 1977; Olweus, 2005; Vreeman & Carroll, 2007). In the development of an intervention and prevention plan against bullying in a school that adopted the whole school approach, all people who are involved in the school as well as community members should be included and work together as a team to promote awareness and provide effective solutions to prevent bullying in schools.

According to Pepler, Craig, Ziegler, Charach and Kielty, Gilligan and Staton (2017) it is the responsibility of the stakeholders of the school to set a framework for a whole school approach by outlining the expectations and procedures for learners as to what type of behaviour is viewed as acceptable and what is defined as bullying behaviour. The policy should not only include expectations regarding the behaviour of the learners but also the behaviour of the staff and the community. Pepler et al. (1994) stated that a whole school approach should comprise activities and initiatives that will include all members of the school governing body, the learners, parents, educators and other staff members that form part of the school environment. Including all members of the school community as well as the external community will ensure that an effective intervention and prevention plan will include activities that raise awareness and increase positive behaviour within the whole school. The intervention and prevention plan will include activities that will focus on the learners and other individuals who are involved in bullying behaviour. The success of the whole school approach will depend on regular evaluation and assessment of the school environment to change the aspects that lead to learners not receiving education in a safe school environment (Kielty et al., 2017; Pepler et al., 1994).

4.11.2.3 Components of the whole school approach

The whole school approach consists of components including members of the staff, school governing body, principals, educators, classroom assistants, ground staff, office staff, learners, parents/guardians and the community (Olweus, 1994; Pepler et al., 1994).

Members of staff – Successful bullying prevention programmes depend on the attempt made by the principals, other members of the staff and the educators to create a safe environment that promotes good relationship building between teachers and learners and between learners and their peers. As mentioned earlier, the classroom environment plays an important role in creating an atmosphere where learners will be encouraged to participate in the creation of a safe classroom environment by obeying the class rules and by supporting and accepting their peers coming from different cultural and socio-economic backgrounds. It is the duty of the principal to put a prevention and intervention programme into place and provide the teachers and the learners with the necessary resources. The success of the prevention and intervention programme will depend on the attitude of the staff members implementing the programme.

Learners – The whole school approach focuses on the education of each learner to ensure academic achievement and socio-emotional development. Learners are encouraged to report bullying cases or to seek help if they are victims or even the perpetrators when they feel that they can trust their teachers or other members of the staff. Classroom activities that include prevention and intervention activities may assist in the attempt to reduce bullying occurring in the classroom and outside on the playground. It is important for learners to be educated about bullying and they should be included in the process of planning an intervention (Olweus, 1994).

Parents/Guardians – Parents should also be included in the development of an intervention plan. The more engaged parents are and the more education parents receive on bullying, the more successful the programme may be as parents can further educate and help their children at home. Parents or guardians of learners who are bullies will get a better understanding of the importance of teaching their children strategies to stop bullying and parents may also get an opportunity to ask for help if they are experiencing problems helping their child to stop bullying (Vreeman & Carroll, 2007; Olweus, 1994).

The community – Although most bullying occurs within the school, children who are bullied or bully others leave the school grounds and enter the community. Bullying often does not end at school. Children may be bullied by their parents or siblings or children may bully their parents or siblings. Schools can also develop partnerships with agencies within their community such as the police, social development, and clinics for mental health. These agencies can assist schools in providing prevention education and intervene with children who have been victims of bullying or who are bullies themselves (Olweus, 1994; Vreeman & Carroll, 2007).

The whole school intervention thus includes a combination of methods involving the school at all levels including the members of the staff, learners, parents/guardians and the community. Various agencies within the community can assist the schools in planning an implementation of a prevention programme. These agencies can also assist with providing support and education for learners and their families outside the school environment.

4.11.3 Sheffield Anti-Bullying Project (England)

In 1992 intervention work against bullying was done in England. These interventions were based on existing knowledge and an idea regarding bullying and bullying behaviour but it was not based on systematic evaluations of the success of these interventions. During 1993 the Sheffield Anti-Bullying Project was designed to determine the effectiveness of the previous intervention projects. As the previous intervention projects were designed for teachers and in part for parents, the Sheffield Project was designed to also include a wider context (Sharp & Smith, 2006; Stevens, De Bourdeaudhuij, & Van Oost, 2001).

4.11.3.1 Initial implementation and evaluation of the programme

The project was implemented in 23 schools which included 16 primary and 7 secondary schools and 6500 learners between the ages of 8 to 16 years. All these schools received a survey portfolio on bullying and bullying behaviour to assist them in the planning and development of interventions programmes against bullying, to monitor the work and to evaluate the effectiveness of the project (Sharp & Smith, 2006; Stevens et al., 2001). The evaluation was done by means of pre-intervention surveys carried out in 1990 followed by a second survey administered 18 months after the implementation of the programme.

4.11.3.2 Purpose of the programme

The main purpose of the intervention project was to develop a whole school policy on bullying and bullying behaviour. Schools needed a written document which included an explanation and definition of the term bullying, what steps schools will follow when bullying takes place in the school, whom will they report to and what type of records will be kept. The written document should also include how the effectiveness of the policy will be monitored and who will be responsible for this (Sharp & Smith, 1991; Smith, 2012).

The development of a whole school policy included six key principles. It was very important that the development of the policy followed from raising awareness of the issue of bullying and bullying behaviour in the school. Principle number two required the policy to be

developed by teaching staff and non-teaching staff members. The third principle stated that the policy must be accessible and should include a clear definition of the term bullying. It should also include precise guidelines for members of the staff, learners and parents. Further, it was important for all parties involved in the school context to be informed about the process that should be followed in the prevention and intervention process. Finally, it was important for the staff, learners and parents to be aware of the steps that should be followed when they become aware of bullying occurring in the school (Sharp & Smith, 1991; Smith, 2012). The policy should be developed in such a way that it creates an atmosphere where children will feel free to share their feelings or report any type of bullying they have witnessed or fell victim to or played a role in. Further, it was important for the policy to be well communicated throughout the school to ensure mutual expectations and consistency in the practice (Smith, 1997). A major requirement was that the parties involved in the development should ensure that it is implemented effectively. Finally, it was the duty of the parties involved to monitor and review the policy on a regular basis to ensure that it will have a lasting effect over time.

4.11.3.3 Results on the effectiveness of the programme

The results of the surveys indicated a decrease of victimisation by 14% in the primary schools and 7% in the secondary schools. The bullying rates also decreased by 12% in the primary schools and 12% in the secondary schools. The proportion of learners who reported bullying incidents occurring in the school, increased by 6% in the primary schools and 32% in the secondary schools. The proportion of bullies who reported that they have been approached by teachers who spoke to them about their unacceptable behaviour increased by 5% in the primary schools and 38% in the secondary schools.

Positive correlations between measures that were taken against bullying behaviour and some outcome measures such as changes in the frequency of learners bullying their peers were found (Smith, 1997).

During the period of 1991 to 1993, another intervention programme was implemented in two school in the London area and two schools in the Liverpool area. One primary and one secondary school from each city were included in the study and 1284 learners took part in the programme. All the schools created a staff-student anti-bullying committee who had the task of designing and implementing the anti-bullying policy. In the primary schools, video and peer-support programmes were used and assertiveness training and peer-mediation skills training were used in the secondary schools. The results from the primary schools indicated a decrease

in the number of bullying incidents that occurred in the school. The number of learners who have never fallen victim to bullying, increased by 10% after the first year, and 61% in the second year. However, the results from the two secondary schools were inconsistent. The number of learners who have never been victims of bullying before might have increased by 4% in the Liverpool school, but the number decreased in the London secondary school. The result for the London school was potentially due to an increase in racial tension in the surrounding community (Smith, 1997).

4.11.4 The Seville Anti-Violencia Escolar (SAVE) project (Seville)

The Seville Anti-Violencia Escolar project was inspired by the Sheffield and OBPP projects and was implemented in Seville from 1995 to 1996 and from 1999 to 2000. The difference between the SAVE project and the Sheffield and OBPP projects, was that it developed autonomously. This project consisted of four parts which included the democratic management of interpersonal relationships, co-operative group work and the curriculum, training in attitudes, values and emotions and direct interventions for learners at risk or those who are involved in bullying behaviour (Ortega & Lera, 2000; Smith, Pepler, & Rigby, 2004, p. 595). Ten schools participated in this programme and the learners who participated ranged from 8 to 18 years. Five of these schools which included 910 learners took part in a post-intervention survey that took place four years after the initial survey. Three different schools participated in the posttest as control schools and 751 learners participated. However, this could not be considered a true experimental design as these schools did not have pre-test data.

The results indicated that the number of pupils who were identified as victims of bullying decreased by 57% and the number of learners who were identified as the perpetrators decreased by 16%. However, the number of bystanders increased by 7%. The posttest results indicated that there was a significant decrease of bullying problems occurring in the intervention schools compared to the control schools. An increase in positive peer relationship building was also evident as the results showed an increase of 16% and the number of long-term victims (learners who have been bullied in a year) decreased by 41% (Jimerson et al., 2010; Ortega & Lera, 2000; Smith et al., 2004).

4.11.5 KiVa anti-bullying programme (Finland)

The KiVa anti-bullying programme is a research-based programme implemented in schools to prevent and reduce the cases of bullying happening in the school context (Kärnä, Voeten, Little, Alanene, Poskiparta, & Salmivalli, 2011; Salmivalli, Kärnä, & Poskiparta, 2011). The

programme was developed by the University of Turku. It is considered a comprehensive programme which includes user-friendly resources including teacher manuals, computer games, online surveys with school-based feedback and guidelines when dealing with bullying cases.

In the 1990's the prevalence of bullying in schools in Finland increased and it called for a change in the legislation (Salmivalli et al., 2011). The legislation included the right of children to be educated in a safe school environment. Schools were encouraged to develop their own policy (Salmivalli et al., 2011). After there appeared to be no improvement in the prevalence of bullying in schools, the Finish government decided to act against bullying. The development of the programme and the evaluation of its effects and success were done during 2006 to 2009. During 2009 and 2010 the programme was implemented in schools across Finland.

The KiVa programme is a whole-school approach which was developed for children between the ages of 7 to 15 years. There are three different versions of this programme including Unit 1 for ages 7 to 9, Unit 2 for ages 10 to 12 and Unit 3 for children ages 13 to 15 (Salmivalli et al., 2011). The main aim of the programme is to stop on-going bullying, prevent new bullying incidents and to decrease the traumatic consequences of falling victim to bullying (Clarkson, Charles, Saville, Bjornstad, & Hutchings, 2019; Kärnä et al., 2010; Salmivalli et al., 2010).

4.11.5.1 Components of the KiVa programme

The KiVa programme includes universal and indicated actions. A universal action such as the KiVa curriculum which includes student lessons and online games was directed toward all the learners to reduce and prevent bullying. The indicated actions are used after a bullying case has been reported (Clarkson et al., 2019; Kärnä et al., 2010; Salmivalli et al., 2011).

4.11.5.2 Evaluation and effectiveness of the KiVa programme

The effectiveness of the programme has been evaluated in numerous studies. The results showed that the programme leads to a decrease in the number of children reporting that they were victims of bullying and the number of children who bullied their peers. Further evaluation showed that it also assisted in reducing victimisation acts such as cyberbullying, verbal, physical and relational bullying (Kärnä et al., 2010; Salmivalli et al., 2011).

The KiVa program won the European Crime Prevention Award in 2009, Social Policy Award for Best Article in 2012 and four National awards in 2008, 2010, 2011 and 2012

indicating that the programme shows positive results not only in Finland, but also in other countries such as Italy, Netherland and the UK (Clarkson et al., 2019; Kärnä et al., 2010; Salmivalli et al., 2011; Van der Ploeg, Steglich, & Veenstra, 2015).

4.11.6 An Emotional Intelligence Programme (Spain)

Research conducted by the WHO (2014) on violence found that more than 1.3 million people die each year as a result of violence. Currently problems like bullying are common in schools and it is related to a lack of social and emotional skills. Studies examining the relationship between aggressive behaviour and emotional intelligence seem to be scarce. However, these studies show that emotional intelligence skills and emotional attention are positively related to anger management and when emotional repair is done, lower trait anger and lower internal expression of anger and higher control of emotions are visible (Salguero & Iruarrizaga, 2006). Studies conducted by researchers such as Zeidner et al., (2009), Garcia-Sancho et al., (2014) and Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal, (2005) found that people with high emotional intelligence are able to resolve conflict situations more constructively and display less aggressive behaviour.

Research which focused on the enhancement of emotional intelligence skills showed that increased emotional intelligence skills led to positive leadership and decrease in aggressive behaviour amongst people in the workplace and children in schools (Kõiv, 2012; Munoz, Qualter, & Padgett, 2011). Regarding socio-emotional intervention programmes, studies confirmed that these programmes led to the improvement of self-control, more assertive behaviour, improved problem-solving skills and reduced aggressive behaviour (Garaigordobil & Pena-Sarrionandia (2015).

Garaigordobil and Pena-Sarrionandia (2015) conducted a study on the effects of an emotional intelligence programme on variables related to the prevention of violence. They based their study on the model of Mayer and Salovey (1990) in which emotional intelligence consists of four dimensions namely, perception, facilitation, comprehension and emotion regulation.

Perceiving emotions refers to the ability of individuals to be aware of their own, others and emotions present in stories, art and music. Facilitating thought is described as individuals' ability to generate emotions to communicate different feelings. Understanding emotions refers to the ability of individuals to understand emotional information and to show appreciation for the emotional meanings. Emotional regulation refers to the ability of individuals to be open to

the experience of different feelings and to be in control of these feelings to promote personal understanding and growth (Garaigordobil & Pena-Sarrionandia, 2015).

4.11.6.1 The aim and design of the study

The aim of their study was to design a programme of emotional intelligence (EI) for adolescents and to assess the effects on variables related to the prevention of violence. The researchers also investigated possible differential effects of the programme on both genders.

The sample comprised 148 Spanish adolescents aged from 13 to 16 years of whom 83 (four groups) were randomly assigned to the experimental condition and 65 (three groups) to the control condition. Of these 148 participants, 67 were boys and 81 were girls. No statistically significant differences were found in the socio-demographic characteristics of the experimental and control group where gender, age, type of school and level of their parents' education were taken into consideration. One year after the intervention was carried out, a follow-up phase was performed where a sample mortality of 18 participants were observed.

The study used an experimental design with repeated pretest-posttest measures and control groups. To measure the variables, four assessment instruments were administered before and after the programme, as well as in the follow-up phase (one year after the conclusion of the intervention). The instruments included the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS-24) to assess the intrapersonal emotional intelligence including three factors namely, attention, clarity and emotional repair, the Cognitive Strategies for Resolution of Social Situations Questionnaire which was used to explore the cognitive strategies to solve six conflictive social situations, the State-Trait Anger Expression Inventory in Children and Adolescents which assesses state/trait anger, its expression and control and the Questionnaire for the Assessment of the Ability to analyse feelings which was used to explore the cognitive ability of the analysis of four negative emotions including, sadness, envy, anger and fear.

4.11.6.2 Description of the programme

The programme consisted of 20 one-hour weekly sessions and included 31 activities which were divided into five modules namely, self-awareness, emotion regulation, mood, communication and empathy. An example of an activity is *Body Language* which falls under the communication module.

The aim of this activity is to identify, understand, and express emotions and to learn how to solve social conflicts. For the purpose of this activity, two tasks are carried out. The first activity involves brainstorming about emotions. From all emotions proposed by the students,

the educator assigns an emotion to each learner. The learner must then walk around the classroom and express the emotion in a non-verbal manner until another classmate can identify the emotion. In the second activity, learners are divided into small groups where different emotional images are shown, and they must name the expressed emotion, the possible causes of the emotion, possible consequences and ways in which to deal or handle the emotions. The debate raises questions about the interactions and emotions experienced, for example what they have learned, what did they feel and is it easy to identify emotions (Garaigordobil & Pena-Sarrionandia, 2015).

4.11.6.3 Application of the programme

The methodological framework of the intervention programme consist of four variables namely, (1) inter-session constancy (i.e., performing a weekly 1-h session); (2) spatial–temporal constancy (i.e. the programme is applied on the same week day, at the same time, and in the same physical space); (3) constancy of the adult program director (i.e. a psych pedagogue or one with such training); and (4) consistency in the session structure (Garaigordobil & Pena-Sarrionandia, 2015).

In order to ensure consistency in the structure of the sessions, it is important for the facilitator to follow three easy steps. The first step is to ensure that the participants are comfortable and relaxed. To create a calm and relaxed atmosphere, the facilitator can place the participants' in a circle. This way the participants can see the facilitator as well as the rest of the group. Once the participants appear comfortable and relaxed, the facilitator can continue to explain the type of activities designed for the session, the goals of the activities. When the participants indicate that they have a good understanding of the activities and the goals, the facilitator can proceed with the instructions for the activities. Step two requires the participants to participate in the activities. After the completion of the activities, the facilitator will move on to step three which concludes the session. During step three the participants are instructed to sit in a circle on the carpet. The ending of the session involves a discussion and reflection on the activities and the success of the session. During the discussion and reflection of the session, it is important for the facilitator to remain objective and to refrain from issuing judgments or opinions regarding the performance of the activities. Different techniques of group dynamics to enhance the debate include role-playing, brainstorming, and guided discussion through the formulation of questions (Garaigordobil & Pena-Sarrionandia, 2015).

4.11.6.4 Results and outcomes of the programme

The results of the intervention programme based on the posttest scores, showed an increase in the emotional intelligence levels of the participants, an improvement of the abilities of the participants to be more assertive in their social interaction strategies, better control of their anger and the ability to identify and analyse their feelings.

During the follow-up phase, it was evident that the intervention programme was successful as the participants did not make use of aggressive strategies to solve conflict situations. Further, the results showed that with regard to the effect of the programme on gender, the results showed that it had a similar effect on both genders. However, the male participants showed an increase in their ability to be assertive in their social interaction strategies and their ability to be more attentive to the emotions of others (Garaigordobil & Pena-Sarrionandia, 2015).

4.11.7 The INTEMO Programme (Spain)

In 2013 Gualda, Salguero, Fernandez- Berrocal and Balluerka conducted a study to explore the effects of a two-year intervention programme grounded in the ability model of emotional intelligence on aggression and empathy among adolescents.

4.11.7.1 The participants and design of the programme

The participants consisted of middle and high school learners from eight public schools located in three Spanish cities. Eight of the public schools agreed to participate on a voluntary basis. Two schools within each city served as the experimental or control group. During the two academic years the researchers lost 15.75% of the sample group as a result of the learners either leaving the school or moving to another class. In the end the study included a total of 590 adolescents between the ages of 11 and 17 years. From the sample 361 learners were randomly assigned to the EI training group and 229 learners were assigned to the control group (Gualda et al., 2013).

The design selected for the study was a quasi-experimental, pre-test-post-test design with a control group. The baseline data for the study was collected in one-hour sessions during the school day for both the EI training and the control groups. The two-year EI training known as the INTEMO programme consisted of twelve one-hour sessions which was distributed across six months. The post-test data was collected six months after the final INTEMO session (Gualda et al., 2013).

4.11.7.2 Description and implementation of the programme

The INTEMO programme is based on a body of evidence stating that the development of skills associated with perceiving, facilitating, understanding and regulating emotions are important for the positive development of adults and adolescents. As stated in the above, the EI training was completed over two years and involved 12 sessions which lasted an hour.

The primary objective of the EI training was to enhance the accurate perception, appraisal and expression of emotions in the participants. A second aim was to enhance the participant's ability to generate emotions in order to facilitate thought. Then the programme also aimed to develop the participant's abilities to understand emotions and to label them by making use of emotional vocabulary. Finally, the programme aimed to enhance the participant's ability to regulate emotions in order to promote emotional and intellectual growth (Gualda et al., 2013).

As the programme formed part of the school schedule, learners participated in working groups. During each session, the learners were divided into groups and engaged in activities which focused on different emotions. The activities included role-playing, games, film forums and reflective activities. The activities were designed to create opportunities for the whole class to participate in to try and promote co-operation and positive peer interactions.

During the two years in which the intervention was implemented, the learners who formed part of the control group received the normal tutorial lessons that were officially designed by the Spanish Government for the academic community in the country. The lessons aimed to provide comprehensive education for secondary learners. A tutor was assigned to each class during the two academic years. Each tutor was equipped with specific curricular materials. The tutorial programs consisted of several lessons which required the learners to do personal and group reflections on the structured issues that were included in the material. The programs consisted of topics such as classroom organisation and climate, co-ordination with the learners and their families, study techniques, self-assessment, self-esteem enhancement, academic and professional counselling and the development of social skills. For the purpose of the study, the researchers randomly selected learners from the same school and from a different school to form part of the control group condition (Gualda et al., 2013).

During the first academic year of the research, student reports were used to determine the level of satisfaction with the programme. Learners who formed part of the EI training were asked to rate the programme on how interesting they found the content, was what they learned helpful, did they find the lessons helpful and interesting, did they enjoy the programme and

was the trainer well prepared. The information which was collected during the first year was used to develop the programme for the second year.

4.11.7.3 Results and outcomes of the programme

The results from the pre-test of the multivariate analyses of variance yielded no significant differences in aggression or the empathy scores between the males and females. On average, the learners who participated indicated that the content of the lessons was extremely interesting. They also reported that they felt positive that the rest of their classmates also learned a lot from the information and the content of the programme. It appears an overall satisfaction with the INTEMO programme was experienced by the learners.

The results on the posttest differences in aggression and empathy showed no gender differences in the effect of the EI training on aggression. However, the univariate tests showed after controlling for the pre-test differences between EI training and control groups and age differences, there was a statistically significant effect on the INTEMO programme. Learners who formed part of the EI training group showed significantly lower levels of physical aggression, verbal aggression and anger. Regarding empathy, the results showed a significant difference in gender. The males and females were therefore separately analysed.

Regarding the changes between the pretest and posttest, the researchers employed paired t-tests to analyse the change in aggression and empathy scores from pretest to posttest in each group. The results on aggression for the learners who formed part of the EI training showed a significant decrease in their levels of anger and hostility. There was no significant change in their physical and verbal aggression (Gualda et al., 2013).

The results showed that the males who formed part of the control group had increased levels in their fantasy and decreased levels in their empathy. These changes were not found in the results of the EI training group. In the EI training group, results indicated significant differences between the pretest and posttest scores on perspective taking which increased and personal distress which decreased. The results of the females in both the control and EI training group showed a significant increase in their levels of fantasy. There were also changes in their levels of perspective taking. Overall, females in the EI group showed a significant increase in their levels whereas changes were only marginally significant for the females who formed part of the control group (Gualda et al., 2013).

The study conducted by Gualda et al., (2013) supports the effectiveness of the INTEMO programme as intervention to reduce aggression related actions and increase empathic abilities

amongst adolescents. Their work showed that the INTEMO programme leads to a decrease in aggression regardless of gender. The results showed that the EI intervention potentially moderated negative dispositions associated with aggression among adolescents by providing strategies to enhance their abilities to manage their thoughts and physical changes that leads to hostility and anger. Further, the results indicated that the programme helped the participants to solve problems in a more effective and peaceful manner.

Regarding the improvement of the participants' empathy, the results showed that the programme facilitated the promotion of empathetic responses especially amongst the male participants. The results showed that the programme led to a decrease in the male fantasy scores and an overall decrease in personal stress.

The results for the females regarding empathy showed that during adolescence females have less to gain from the interventions which focused on emotional ability-building. Females are thus better in being empathetic during adolescence then boys (Gualda et al., 2013).

4.11.8 RULER Programme (United States and Australia)

The RULER programme is an initiative of the Yale Centre for Emotional Intelligence, founded by the researcher Peter Salovey. The aim of the programme is the development of emotional intelligence skills of children (Brackett & Rivers, 2014; Rivers, 2014).

The programme was developed in 2005 by Susan Rivers and Marc Brackett as an evidence-based approach to teach emotional intelligence to children. Since the development of the programme, the researchers included the improvement of the classroom and the school climate as an effort to increase the capacity of learners to fully benefit from their educational experience. According to Rivers and Brackett (2005) the emotional climate of a classroom is the best predictor of learner participation, co-operation, performance and behaviour.

The RULER's field-tested approach can be integrated into the school curriculum and across the entire school. Evaluations of the programme indicated that it leads to an improvement in the academic performance and social skills of children. It also assists in changing the classroom climate to be perceived as more supportive and child-centred (Rivers & Brackett, 2005).

The name of the programme is an acronym for targeted emotional intelligence skills including recognising emotions in the self and others, understanding the causes and consequences of emotions, labelling emotions accurately, expressing emotions appropriately and regulating emotions effectively. The teaching materials are fully integrated with the

existing curriculum of a school and aligned with the Common Core State Standards. This programme was originally developed for primary schools as the programme for the pre-primary and high schools were still in process of development.

Additional outcomes for learners included improved school climate, increased emotional intelligence skills, decrease in feelings of anxiety and depression, reduced bullying, better focus and attention in the classroom and better leadership skills (Rivers & Brackett, 2009).

4.11.8.1 Implementation of the programme

The implementation of the RULER programme involves three phases:

Phase 1 – Anchors of Emotional Intelligence (AEII)

During the first year of the implementation of a RULER programme in a school, a four-day training session is included for teachers, staff members, learners and their families. The training grounds the individuals who form part of the training in the anchors of emotional intelligence and the RULER's fundamental tools for the enhancement of a person's ability to regulate his or her own emotions and empathise with the feelings of others (Rivers, 2014). The participants will be taught how the four RULER Anchor tools will assist in creating a supportive and caring school climate while teaching emotional skills to learners and adults. After the Anchor Tools became part of the everyday routine of a school, participants return to the Yale Centre for Emotional Intelligence to receive training on the RULER Feeling Words Curriculum which ties directly to standard literacy and social studies curricula. This is done as an attempt to strengthen academic instruction while expanding the vocabulary of each learner and the skills in understanding and managing their feelings and emotions (Nathanson, Rivers, Flynn & Brackett, 2016).

The RULER Anchor tools

The Anchors of Emotional Intelligence are evidence-based tools designed to enhance the emotional intelligence of teachers and staff, and students and their families. Each RULER Anchor tool is based on scientific research and helps children and adults in developing their emotional intelligence skills (Nathanson, et al., 2016)

Charter – The emotional climate of a school has a direct effect on the well-being of a community and a child's ability to learn. The Charter is a collaborative document that aims to assist schools in establishing a safe, supportive and productive learning environment. It is developed by members of the community and it outlines how they best want to treat each other. Together, the community describes how they would like to feel at school, the behaviours that

may foster those feelings, and guidelines for preventing and managing unwanted feelings and conflict. By working together to build the Charter, everyone establishes common goals and holds each other accountable for creating the positive climate they envision (Nathanson et al., 2016).

Mood Meter – Learning to identify and label your own emotions and those of others is one of the most important steps in enhancing the emotional intelligence of a child or an adult. By making use of the Mood Meter the teachers and learners become more aware of their emotions and how they change throughout the day. They also become more aware of the effect their emotions have on their actions. Both teachers and learners develop the self-awareness they need to inform their choices. The teachers and the learners expand their emotional vocabulary and learn how to replace their basic feeling words with more appropriate terms. Teachers and learners learn how to refrain from using words like fine or ok and practice using more advanced words such as hopeless or alienated. By teaching subtle distinctions between similar feelings, the Mood Meter empowers teachers and learners to recognise the full scope of their emotional lives and address all feelings more effectively (Nathanson et al., 2016).

Meta-Moment – Emotions can either help or hinder relationships. The Meta-Moment helps teachers and their learners to take a step back and to think about the situation and how they can handle the strong emotions they are experiencing. As a result, teachers and learners learn how to make better decisions that not only they will benefit from but it will include the community they form part of. As stated in the above, the Meta-Moment is a brief step back from the situation, it is that pause we make when we think about the consequences before we act. We ask ourselves, how would my "best self" react in this situation? What strategy can I use so that my actions reflect my best self (Nathanson et al., 2016)? Over time and with practice, teachers and learners will learn to replace ineffective responses with productive and empowering responses to challenging situations they are faced with. As a result of the Meta Moment, individuals can make better choices, form healthier relationships and experience greater well-being (Nathanson et al., 2016).

Blueprint – How all members of a school treat each other will ultimately influence the performance of learners in the classroom and the overall school climate. Conflict between learners, especially bullying acts, interferes with academic performance, teachers' experience of stress and the time teachers must spend off task to deal with the disruptive or inappropriate behaviour. The Blueprint helps teachers and learners to manage conflict in a more effective

manner (Nathanson et al., 2016). The Blueprint assists in repairing and building stronger relationships and creating a safer and more productive, co-operative school environment.

Phase 2 – **The Feeling Words Curriculum**

Being able to express your feelings and using the correct words is extremely important. The inability to use the correct word to express or explain one's feelings can lead to a breakdown in communication. When learners cannot find a way to best express themselves, their feelings may become confused, suppressed or even displaced onto their peers. The Feeling Words Curriculum aims to empower learners and teachers to describe their emotions using words that will best describe their emotions and make it more understandable for those around them. Developmentally appropriate lessons are included into the curriculum of the school. Learners improve their emotional intelligence skills, enhance their writing and critical thinking skills and develop empathy and advanced perspective-taking abilities they need for healthy decision making and building lasting relationships (Nathanson et al., 2016).

Phase 3 – Lasting Results

By including all members of the school staff, learners and their families, the RULER programme will become part of everyday life at the school. Currently schools in New York, Ohio, Washington State, California, Connecticut and Australia have implemented the RULER programme.

4.11.9 Emotional Literacy Intervention (England)

In a study conducted by Knowler and Frederickson (2013) on the effects of an emotional literacy intervention for students identified with bullying behaviour, they found that trait emotional intelligence of children who received the emotional literacy intervention increased. The intervention took place at four different primary schools in England. The intervention included a programme that involved the explicit teaching in small groups of emotional learning skills taken from the Emotional Literacy Assessment and Intervention Ages 7 to 11. The programme focused on four themes namely; developing self-awareness, learning about self-regulation, enhancing empathy and improving social skills. There were three sessions on each theme so the programme of weekly sessions required 12 weeks to complete. Each session was delivered during school hours and lasted 45 to 60 minutes. The scheme of the work focused particularly on behavioural and cognitive behavioural elements. Children were given weekly tasks to complete which involved noting linked behaviours, thoughts and feelings. There were

two groups of five and two groups of six children and the main emphasis of the group sessions included role-play and practical activities.

In conclusion, an emotional intelligent child will have the ability to tolerate, contain and comprehend emotional experiences. They will also be able to show openness towards their own feelings and express empathy for other people and have better impulse control.

Studies confirmed that the implementation of socio-emotional programmes in schools can lead to improved self-control, more assertive behaviour, improved problem-solving skills and reduced aggressive behaviour (Lomas & Stough, 2011). The enhancement of emotional intelligence skills was found to have positive outcomes on decreasing aggressive behaviour of children. Positive results were visible in schools which implemented socio-emotional intervention programmes to prevent the occurrence of bullying (Brackett & Katulak, 2007; Brackett & Rivers, 2014; Gualda et al., 2013; Knowler & Frederickson, 2013; Lomas & Stough, 2011; Olweus, 1995; Olweus, 2002).

4.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this section the concept of emotional intelligence has been comprehensively analysed. It started with a discussion on the shift from the belief that the success of individuals are measured by their intelligence (IQ) to including a focus on the emotional intelligence levels of individuals and being successful in life. Specific attention was paid to the importance of emotions with specific reference to the learner.

Next the analysis of the concept emotional intelligence continued with a brief definition as it was used for the purpose of this study. The definition included characteristics of an individual with high emotional intelligence. These characteristics included the ability to identify, understand and control emotions in the self and others.

The discussion on the history of the development of the concept focused on non-cognitive aspects being considered just as important as cognitive aspects in predicting the level of success experienced by individuals. The views and explanations of researchers such as Gardner (1983) and Bar-On (2006) were discussed. Gardner included interpersonal and intrapersonal intelligence in his argument against traditional intelligence. According to Gardner, traditional intelligence fails to provide explanations regarding the cognitive abilities of individuals.

The importance of emotional intelligence included a discussion on the five elements defined by Goleman (1995). These elements included self-awareness, self-regulation, internal

motivation, empathy and social skills. One of the most important elements and a factor that plays a role in the development of bullying is empathy. Goleman stated that children who lack the ability to care and have compassion for another may engage in bullying behaviour.

Further, the chapter included a discussion on the parts of the brain that plays an important role in the development of emotional intelligence. The parts of the brain that was discussed included the brain stem, limbic system, amygdala, hippocampus, thalamus and neocortex.

The aim of this research was to determine whether the development of a bully's emotional intelligence can decrease bullying behaviour and prevent bullying from taking place in the school context. The literature on the relationship of emotional intelligence with aggression and bullying was reviewed. The discussion included the argument made by Brackett and Rivers (2014) in their article '*Preventing bullying with emotional intelligence*' regarding the lack of emotional intelligence skills as a key factor in the development of bullying behaviour in children.

As the research focused on the bully and the reasons for the development of bullying in the school context, the factors that were found to play a role namely the emotional intelligence levels of teachers and the classroom climate were discussed.

The chapter concluded the discussion on emotional intelligence by focusing on previous intervention programmes against bullying that was implemented by schools. These programmes all focused on the enhancement of emotional intelligence skills. The focus was placed on the reason for the development of the programmes which was to prevent bullying, the initial implementation, administration and the results. The results of the programmes showed a decrease in the reports of bullying by victims and a decrease in the number of children who engaged in bulling behaviour as a result of improved emotional intelligence skills.

These results together with the fact that there is a lack of local studies which focused specifically on the development of the bully's emotional intelligence skills as intervention and prevention of bulling in the school context, served as a motivation for the development of this research programme.

In Chapter 5, the methodology is explained, and the specific tools and techniques used are described in detail.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 provided the context for the current study and suggested that bullying intervention programmes that specifically focus on the enhancement of the primary school bully's emotional intelligence as intervention against bullying are under-researched. Further, the literature reviewed pointed out that the value of EI in the prevention of bullying in the primary school context has been underestimated; hence the need to explore the role of EI and the enhancement of the primary school bully's EI skills as intervention against bullying behaviour within the primary school context.

This chapter presents the way in which this research was conducted. The research aims, research questions, objectives and hypotheses are restated. This is followed by a discussion on the way this study was conducted in terms of the research approach, the research philosophy, the research design, methods of gathering and analysing the data and the rationale for the instruments that were developed and utilised for this study.

The development of the emotional intelligence anti-bullying intervention programme is also discussed. The chapter concludes with detail on ethical considerations.

5.1.1 Aims of the research

The general aim of this research was to determine whether the implementation of an emotional intelligence skills-based intervention programme against bullying could assist in decreasing bullying behaviour in the primary school context in South Africa. The aim of the emotional intelligence programme was to enhance the emotional intelligence skills of the identified bullies within the primary school context.

The aim of the pilot study was to determine the reliability of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for adults and the suitability thereof and of the other instruments that were selected for the data collection process within a South African context.

The aim of Phase 1 was to determine and present the relationship between the independent variables (emotional intelligence, parent-child-relationship and parenting styles) and the dependent variable (bullying).

The general aim of Phase 2 was to develop an emotional intelligence skills enhancement programme against bullying, to implement this programme in primary school contexts and to evaluate the success thereof.

5.1.2 Research questions

The **primary** research question was:

Can emotional intelligence help to decrease bullying behaviour in the primary school context?

The **secondary** research question for the pilot study was:

Can the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for adults be reliable and suitable for the use in the South African context?

Secondary research questions for Phase 1:

- Is there a difference between the emotional intelligence levels of the parents of the identified bullies and the parents of the identified non-bullies? Is there a difference between the emotional intelligence levels of the identified bullies and the identified non-bullies?
- What is the relationship between the identified bullies and their parents compared to the relationship between the parents of non-bullies and their children?
- Is there a difference between the parenting style chosen by the parents of the identified bullies and the parents of the identified non-bullies?

Secondary research questions for Phase 2:

- Can the implementation of an emotional intelligence anti-bullying skills enhancement programme help to decrease bullying behaviour in the primary school context?
- Will the participation and completion of the emotional intelligence intervention programme against bullying lead to an improvement in the behaviour of the bullies?

5.1.3 Objectives

Due to the lack of intervention programmes which are developmentally appropriate for and specifically designed for primary school bullies, the ultimate objective of this study was to develop and evaluate an emotional intelligence-based skills enhancement intervention programme against bullying for primary schools in Gauteng. As mentioned earlier, this study consisted of a pilot study, Phase 1 and Phase 2. The ultimate objective of this study was established through the objectives set out in each phase.

Pilot study: To identify the participating schools and participants for the pilot study and Phase 1, to distribute the questionnaires to all the pilot study participants to establish the suitability and reliability of the measurements selected for the purpose of this study.

Objectives for the pilot study included:

- Determining the suitability of the selected measuring instruments for the children and adults who participated in this study.
- Determining the reliability of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire.

Phase 1: This phase involved the establishment of the baseline data for the learners who were identified as bullies and who were between the ages of 7 and 13 years old. The baseline data of the bullies and their parents were compared with data for a group of non-bullying children and their parents on emotional intelligence (Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire and Bar-On EQ-i:YV), relationship between parent and child (PCRI) and parenting styles (PSQ).

Objectives for this phase included:

- Determining the emotional intelligence levels of identified bullies and their parents and comparing them with non-bullies' and their parents.
- Determining the relationship between parent and child of the identified bullies and their parents and comparing them with non-bullies and their parents.
- Determining the parenting style of the bully's parents and comparing it to the parenting styles of the non-bullies' parents.

Phase 2: This phase involved the development of the emotional intelligence skills enhancement programme as intervention against bullying which was implemented in a primary school in the Gauteng area of South Africa.

Objectives for this phase included:

- The development of the emotional intelligence anti-bullying intervention programme.
- The implementation and evaluation of the emotional intelligence anti-bullying programme for bullies in primary schools in the Gauteng area of South Africa.

5.1.4 Hypotheses

When a researcher plans on conducting research to test or explain the occurrence of a phenomenon, the researcher has developed proposed beliefs or ideas about the reasons for the phenomenon to exist. This proposed explanation is the hypothesis and it is considered the

starting point for further investigation to determine the actual cause of the development or occurrence of a phenomenon (Bernard & Whitley, 2001; Lavrakas, 2008; Maree, 2007).
In the present research, hypotheses were developed for each phase to assist in answering the research questions and meet the objectives.

Pilot study

- The Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for adults will be reliable for research purposes and suitable for the use in the South African context.

Phase 1

- Primary school bullies compared to non-bullies will score significantly lower on the BarOn EQ-i: YV.
- Parents of the identified bullies will score significantly lower on the scales of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire than parents of the non-bullies.
- Parents of the identified bullies will score significantly lower on the PCRI than parents of the non-bullies.
- Parents of the identified bullies will have a more authoritarian parenting style, whereas parents of non-bullies will be more authoritative on the PSQ.

Phase 2

- Comparing the pretest and posttest results on the BarOn EQ-i:YV, the participating bullies (experimental group) will score significantly higher on the BarOn EQ-i:YV after the implementation of the intervention programme.
- Comparing the pretest and posttest results, the participating bullies (experimental group) will behave in a more positive manner and will receive higher positive behaviour scores on the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire after the implementation of the intervention programme.

5.2 RESEARCH APPROACH

The theoretical framework in a research study is the structure that holds or supports a theory of the research study. It introduces and describes the theory or theories selected by the researcher to explain the reason why the research problem which is being investigated may exist. The theoretical framework in a study includes the paradigm and the theory which will best assist in explaining the reason for the existence of a phenomenon. This study aimed to determine the development of the phenomenon of bullying and how to decrease this type of behaviour in primary school children.

The theoretical framework of a research study consists of the researcher selecting a research paradigm followed by a theory or theories. The term 'paradigm' was coined by Thomas Kuhn in 1962 and it describes the various points of view researchers take in their search for finding explanations for the existence of a phenomenon or human behaviour (Renzi, 2009). A paradigm is therefore a model of reality which explains to humans how reality is supposed to be. Kuhn (1962) further defined it as a set of beliefs that shapes humans' perception of events or behaviour and assists in finding ways to explain the reason for these events or behaviour to occur. In the data collection and interpretation process in a research study, a paradigm refers to two sets, concepts and methods which are selected by the researcher.

The paradigm selected for this study was based on a positivistic approach which is associated with quantitative research. Quantitative research involves hypothesis testing to obtain an objective truth.

The term 'theory' is defined by the Penguin Dictionary of Psychology (1985) as:

"A general principle or a collection of interrelated general principles that is put forward as an explanation of a set of known facts and empirical findings" (Reber, 1985, p. 793).

Theories are therefore formulated to explain, predict, and understand a phenomenon such as bullying. As discussed in Chapter 2, the theories that guided the researcher in understanding the phenomenon bullying included the developmental theories such as Piaget's (1952). Piaget's (1952) Theory of Constructivist Cognitive Development, Freud's (1977) Psychoanalytic Theory of Development, Personality and Aggression and Bowlby's (1969) Attachment Theory. The systems theories include Bandura's (1977) Social Cognitive Theory, Problem-Behaviour Theory and Bronfenbrenner's (1979) Social-Ecological Theory and other theories related to the development of bullying behaviour in children such as the Social Capital Theory and the Dominance Theory. Theories based on the Ability Model and Mixed Model of emotional intelligence underlined the development of the intervention programme and the assessment of emotional intelligence.

A research philosophy can be defined as a belief about the way in which a researcher should go about when collecting and analysing the data that were collected for the study (Creswell, 1994; Galliers, 1991; Wahyuni, 2012). A research philosophy selected by a researcher will depend on the focus of the study, whether it is quantitative which means that the study will primarily focus on facts and numbers, or qualitative where the study will focus on the views of the informants. The research philosophy is a reflection of the researcher's

assumptions about the reason for the occurrence of a phenomenon and these assumptions serve as the base for the research approach (Creswell, 2007; Maree, 2007).

The research approach is viewed as a plan used by a researcher that includes the procedures to be followed for the specific research study. These procedures include the procedures of inquiry known as the research design, methods for collecting the data, analysing the data and interpreting the data (Trochim, 2000). The research problem addressed in a study guides the researcher in determining the procedures that will best assist in collecting, analysing and interpreting the data in the specific study.

The research approach is generally divided into two categories namely, the approach to the collection of the data and the approach to analyse the data (Trochim, 2000). The research approach involves the general epistemological assumptions underpinning a particular research study (Babbie & Mouton, 1998; Remenyi et al., 2002). Epistemology refers to the beliefs of scientists and researchers about how knowledge regarding a specific phenomenon can be required (Babbie & Mouton, 1998; Hirschheim & Klein, 1994). The two basic epistemological approaches include positivism which involves the belief that knowledge and reality can be objectively acquired by using quantitative measuring instruments and interpretivism where the belief is that knowledge can be acquired through subjective interpretations of the social world by the use of qualitative measuring instruments and methods (Maree, 2007).

The positivistic approach followed in the present study involves the belief that knowledge and reality can be objectively acquired and measured when a researcher uses quantitative methods. These methods include the quantifiable measuring of various variables and hypothesis testing. The hypothesis testing involves concepts of truth and the development of universally accepted laws and regulations (Klein, 1994: Wyatt & Wyatt, 2003).

In this study quantitative methods are used to determine the emotional intelligence levels of learners who were identified as bullies and the impact of an emotional intelligence anti-bullying intervention programme in an attempt to decrease the occurrence of bullying in the primary school context.

5.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is a demonstration of the kind of evidence that was gathered, where the researcher gathered the evidence and how the evidence is interpreted in order to provide the best answers to the research questions that were formulated for the study Babbie & Mouton, 2007; De Vaus, 2001; Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe 1991; Sileyew, 2019).

The design followed logically from the research problem, which stated that previous studies on bullying focused on the victims of bullying and equipping them with skills to protect them against bullying, and less focus was placed on the bully and the skills they need to prevent them from engaging in bullying behaviour, especially in a primary school context. The review of literature on bullying, emotional intelligence and intervention programmes designed to prevent bullying in primary schools, revealed that bullying may be the result of a lack of emotional intelligence skills. The present study focused on the bully and how he or she can be assisted in the prevention of becoming a bully by specifically focusing on the bully's emotional intelligence skills which include the understanding of the bully's own and other's feelings and emotions.

This study consisted of a pilot study followed by Phase 1 and Phase 2.

5.3.1 Pilot study

As discussed in Section 1.3.2, a pilot study is a small study that aims to test the research protocols, to determine the suitability and reliability of the instruments that will be utilised for the data collection process, and refine the recruitment strategies of the sample in preparation for the major study (Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Hassan, Schattner, & Mazza, 2006; Peat, Williams, & Xuan, 2002). The pilot study is viewed as one of the most important stages within the research project as it can assist the researcher in identifying possible problematic areas and deficiencies in the instruments and protocol that will be utilised for the study prior to the implementation of these instruments during the larger study.

The objective of the pilot study in this research was to determine the feasibility of the study protocol, the recruitment of the participants (research subjects), and the testing of the measuring instruments for the main study. A pilot study was conducted to test the research procedures prior to beginning data collection, as well as to establish the internal reliability of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for adults. A pilot study is a preliminary part of the research conducted with a sample of research participants drawn from the study population (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). For the purposes of this research, the pilot study was used not only to test the internal reliability of the measure specified, but also to detect characteristics of the current research setting or procedures that needed amendment, as well as to determine the total time needed to complete the necessary measures before the actual data collection. Further, the pilot study was necessary to establish whether the measures were

suitable to be used for children between the ages of 7 to 13 and their parents in the South African context.

The pilot study was conducted at two double medium, one Afrikaans medium and three English medium schools in Gauteng during the third school term of 2017. In this study the protocol for the major study was adhered to in that all the instruments that were utilised for the major study were handed out to parents and learners who indicated that they were willing to participate in the pilot study phase by returning their signed consent forms.

An important factor was to determine and to ensure that the questionnaires that were selected for the study and the items that were included in the questionnaires accurately addressed the research questions, and that the questionnaires were suitable and reliable and that the questions were well defined and clearly understood by the participants.

5.3.2 Phase 1

Phase 1 consisted of establishing baseline data for identified bullies and comparing the data with that of non-bullies on emotional intelligence (BarOn EQ-i:YV and Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire), parent-child relationship (PCRI) and, parenting styles (PSQ).

The design selected for Phase 1 of this study was a cross-sectional design. This design assisted the researcher in measuring all the variables included in this phase and also assisted in making inferences about the population of interests during the time set out for the data to be collected (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

In Phase 1 of this quantitative research study, the goal was to determine the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable in the population of children between the ages of 7 and 13 and their parents. The dependent variable is a phenomenon which one attempts to explain or predict, while the independent variable is the factor used to explain or predict the dependent variable (Babbie, 2011). In this study the dependent variable was bullying and the independent variables were emotional intelligence, parent-child-relationship and parenting styles.

5.3.3 Phase 2

This phase of the study was quasi-experimental and consisted of a pretest and posttest design. This design was selected as it allowed the researcher to determine whether the implementation of an intervention programme can reduce bullying within the primary school

context. In a pretest-posttest design, the dependant variable is measured before the treatment or intervention is implemented and then again after (Bernard & Whitley, 2001; Zientek, Nimon, & Hammack-Brown, 2016). In this study, the dependant variable (bullying) and independent variable (emotional intelligence) of the control and experimental group were measured before and after the implementation of the intervention programme.

The results of the experimental or intervention group are compared with the results from the control group who did not complete the intervention programme. In this study the purpose of the intervention programme was to determine if the enhancement of emotional intelligence skills can reduce bullying in a school context.

Quasi-experiments are conducted in field settings and the purpose is to evaluate the effectiveness of a treatment or an educational intervention (Cook & Campbell, 1997). In this study, the intervention programme was implemented in a primary school in Gauteng where children between the ages of 7 and 13 who were identified as bullies and non-bullies participated in the intervention programme.

The experimental group was assessed, subjected to the experimental treatment and assessed once again. The control group was isolated from any influences of the experimental treatment; they were simply assessed both at the beginning and at the end of the experiment (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). In the present study the psychometric scales (BarOn EQ-i:YV) and the Teacher Evaluation Questionnaire were administered pre and post intervention. Both the experimental group and control group were tested to evaluate the outcome of the skills based emotional intelligence against bullying programme.

5.4 RESEARCH METHODS

Research methods refer to the tools used by a researcher to complete the research. The three common types of methods include qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods. I chose to use quantitative methods in this study. Quantitative research is described as a formal type of investigation methodology that emphasises objective measurements such as surveys and questionnaires. These methods examine numerical data and require the use of statistical computerised tools to analyse the data that were collected during the data collection process. Quantitative methods also allow for the various dependant and independent variables to be measured and for the establishment of relationships between them (Babbie & Mouton, 2011; Bernard & Whitley, 2001; Maree, 2007; Muijs, 2010).

In this study statistical analysis of the questionnaires including the Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Quotient (Bar-On EQ-i:YV), Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for adults, Parent-Child Relationship Inventory (PCRI) and the Parenting Style Questionnaire (PSQ) were done through the use of computerised programmes such as the SPSS.

5.4.1 Sampling

Sampling refers to the selection of the subset of individuals from a selected population for the purpose of the research study. The selection of the participants for each stage in this research study is discussed.

Participants in this study were chosen based on meeting a combination of inclusion criteria; (1) the participants had to be fluent in understanding, speaking and writing English; (2) participants had to be between the ages of 7 and 13; (3) participants had to be willing to participate in the intervention programme; (4) the participants had to be willing to complete the questionnaires; (5) the participants attended a primary school in the indicated area in Gauteng; and (6) the participants had to be willing to fill in a pre-intervention and post-intervention questionnaire.

5.4.1.1 Participants in the pilot study

In choosing a sample size for the pilot study, the aim and objective of the pilot study was kept in mind. This statement is supported by Hertzog (2008) who stated that the sample size of the pilot study depends on the purpose and aim. For a feasibility study she recommended 10 to 15 participants per group and for testing the adequacy of instruments she recommended that the sample size should be 25 to 40. Light, Singer, and Willet (1990) stated the following regarding the sample size of a pilot study:

"One facet of a measurement pilot must not be compromised: the sample design. Be sure that the sample in your pilot fully represents your chosen target population. You must evaluate your instruments in a context that makes the results of the pilot directly generalizable to your ultimate study. Reliability and validity coefficients must be portable between the pilot and future studies" (Light, Singer, & Willet, 1990, p. 215-216).

The sampling technique used in the pilot study was a non-probability sample design that consisted of purposive sampling. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001) purposive sampling refers to selecting a sample:

"*on the basis of your own knowledge of the population, its elements, and the nature of your research aims*" (Babbie & Mouton, 2001, p. 166).

For research to be conducted at schools, an application form was sent to the Gauteng Department of Education (GDE) in Johannesburg who then requested the proposal for the study to be forwarded to them. From the information provided by the proposal, the DBE then granted permission based on the following requirements:

- The schools had to be in the Gauteng area as permission was granted from the Gauteng Department of Education.
- The schools should include learners from different races, cultural backgrounds and languages (as I am only fluent in Afrikaans and English, only Afrikaans and English medium schools could be approached and included in the study).
- The GDE had to be informed about any domestic, family or education-related problems that arose from the study so that specialised teams could be recruited for further intervention.
- A copy of the results must be handed to the GDE.

Before the GDE granted permission, the researcher was invited to a meeting where the study and the process were discussed in depth. Due to the sensitivity of the study, the GDE suggested that she select schools that are easily accessible in case any follow-up sessions or emergency assistance be required from any of the schools. The researcher therefore focused on schools based in the Benoni area in a region in Gauteng in South Africa.

For the purpose of identifying the participating schools, I used purposive sampling where I focused on including schools that were within reaching distance and included different gender, age, race and language groups as well as backgrounds. Five English medium and five Afrikaans medium schools which included all the requirements set out by the GDE were identified in the Benoni area.

During August 2017, I visited all the selected schools and met with the principals to explain the purpose of the study and to provide them with information letters and consent forms should they agree to participate in the study. The information letters included questions regarding the prevalence of bullying in their school, the number of bullies and whether they would participate in the study. Another questionnaire was included where the teachers were requested to indicate the number of bullies in their class and the type of bullying behaviour displayed. To avoid the

bullies being identified, the questionnaire also requested the teachers to indicate several non-bullies in their class.

After a week the researcher returned to the schools to collect the questionnaires and consent forms. Only five schools in the Benoni area indicated that they were willing to participate. Another school in the Springs area which falls within the Gauteng region approached me and indicated that they were willing to participate in the pilot study. A total of five schools in the Benoni area and one in Springs participated in the pilot study. The labelling of the schools is shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1

Labelling of schools, type, area and number of bullies identified per school

School	Type	Area	Number of bullies identified
School A	Dual medium	Springs	46
School B	English medium	Benoni	59
School C	Afrikaans medium	Benoni	13
School D	Dual medium	Benoni	45
School E	English medium	Brakpan	25
School F	English medium	Benoni	20
Total			**208**

I set an appointment with the principals and handed out the information letters and consent forms for the learners and their parents. A total number of 208 information letters and consent forms were handed out to learners and a total number of 416 information letters and consent forms were handed out to be signed by the parents of the learners who were identified as bullies. As stated earlier, I wanted to prevent the bullies from being identified and therefore the same amount of information letters and consent forms were handed out to the learners who were identified as non-bullies.

After a week I returned to all the participating schools to collect the consent forms and to hand out the letters which indicated the dates set for the data collection to take place. The data collection took place at the schools.

A total number of 100 learners and 177 parents returned their signed consent forms. These learners and their parents were included and formed part of the participants for the pilot study. The distribution of the children and their parents is shown in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2

Number of participants included in the pilot study

Participant	N	Male	%	Female	%
Children	100	53	53.0	47	47.0
Parents	177	88	49.7	89	50.3
Total	**277**	**141**	**50.9**	**136**	**49.1**

The purposeful sample consisted of a 100 (*n*=100) children and 177 (*n*=177) participating parents. The results show that from the total sample of 277 *(n*=277) participants, 50.9% (*n*=141) were males and 49.1% (*n*=136) were females.

The next section will include the core variables including the age of the children and the parents, the language of the children and the parents and the ethnicity of the parents.

5.4.1.2 Demographic attributes for the description of the participating children and their parents (pilot study)

The purposeful sample of children consisted of 100 from five primary schools in the Gauteng area in South Africa. The first question on the demographic questionnaire asked the parents to indicate their child's age. The age of the child is important as I had to ensure that the respondents met the inclusion criteria stated in Chapters 1 and 5. The criteria to be met stated that a child should be between the ages of 7 and 13 years old. The results are summarised in Table 5.3 followed by a presentation of the frequency table and a discussion of the data.

The second question was based on the gender of the child as I wanted to determine the number of males and females included in the study. The results show that 53% (*n*=53) were males and 47% (*n*=47) were females. This indicates that more males than females returned their signed consent form.

The final question included in the section based on gaining background information about the child participants, asked the parents to indicated their language of tuition as the pilot study was conducted at school and the inclusion criteria was that children must be able to read and understand English.

Table 5.3

Child distribution by age (n=100)

Variable	Age	F	Percentage
Age in years	7	18	18%
	8	12	12%
	9	10	10%
	10	14	14%
	11	11	11%
	12	22	22%
	13	13	13%
Total		**100**	**100%**

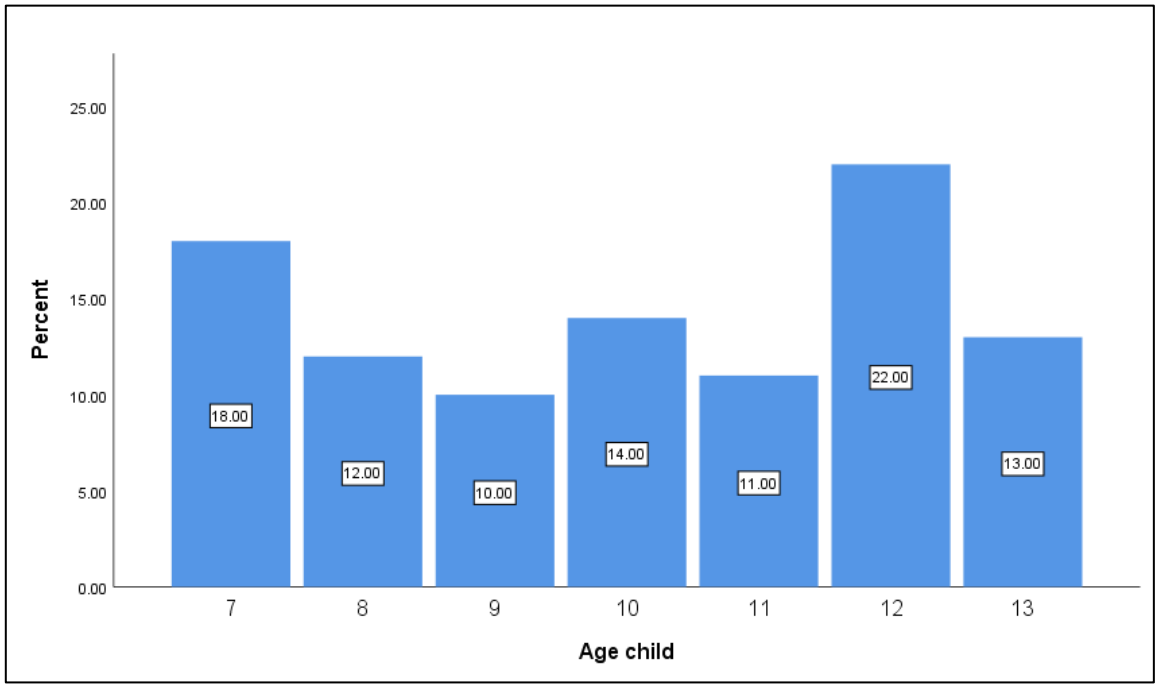

Figure 5.1. **Child distribution by age**

The results show that the minimum age was 7 and the maximum 13 with a mean of $\bar{x}$ = 10.06 and standard deviation of σ = 2.098. It is clear that all the children met the inclusion criteria as they all were between the ages of 7 and 13 years old.

Table 5.4

Child distribution by language (n=100)

Variable		F	Percentage
Language	English	66	66.0%
	Afrikaans	34	34.0%

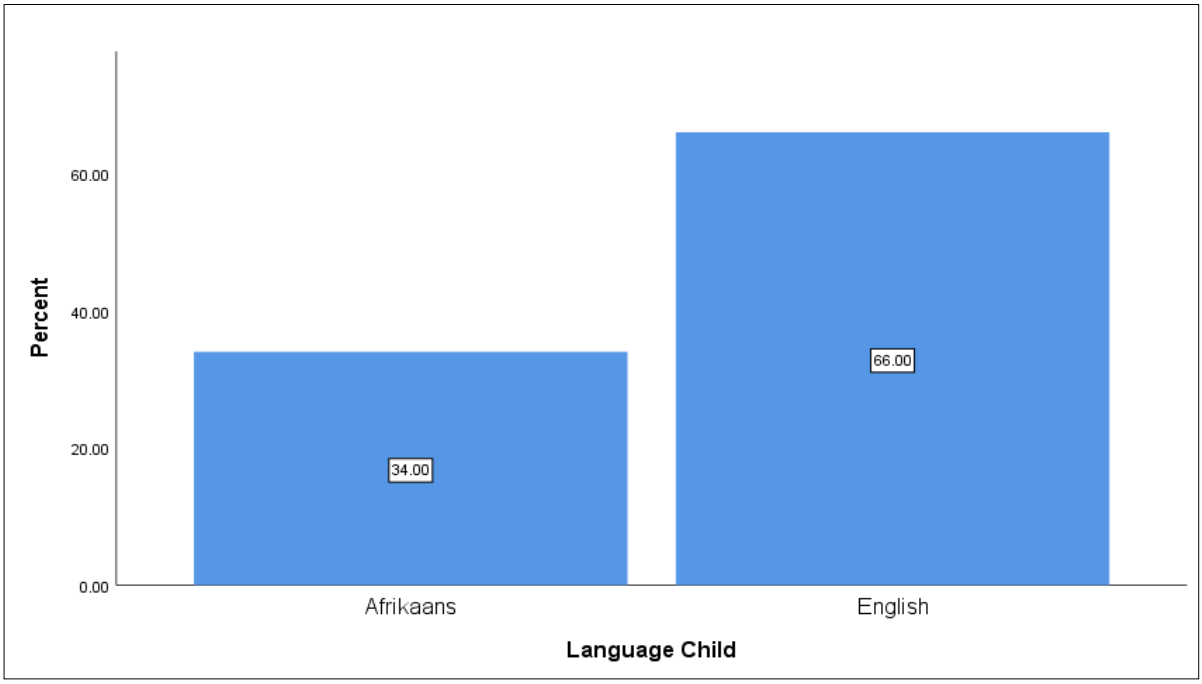

Figure 5.2. **Child distribution by language**

The distribution shows that 66% (*n*=66) of the children chose English as their language of communication and only 34% (*n*=34) of the children chose Afrikaans. After the completion of the demographic questionnaire, I met with the parents of the children who indicated that they were Afrikaans-speaking. It was explained that the inclusion criteria for this study stated that children should be able to read and understand English. Fortunately, all the parents indicated that their children can read and understand English.

The next section in the demographic questionnaire included questions to describe the profile of the participating parents. The demographic variables age, language and ethnicity are presented in Tables 5.5, 5.6 and 5.7 and Figures 5.3 and 5.4. The distribution of the participating parents by gender was summarised in Table 5.2.

Table 5.5

Parent distribution by age (n=177)

Variable		Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	Father	23	60	37.60	5.842
	Mother	23	44	35.53	4.656

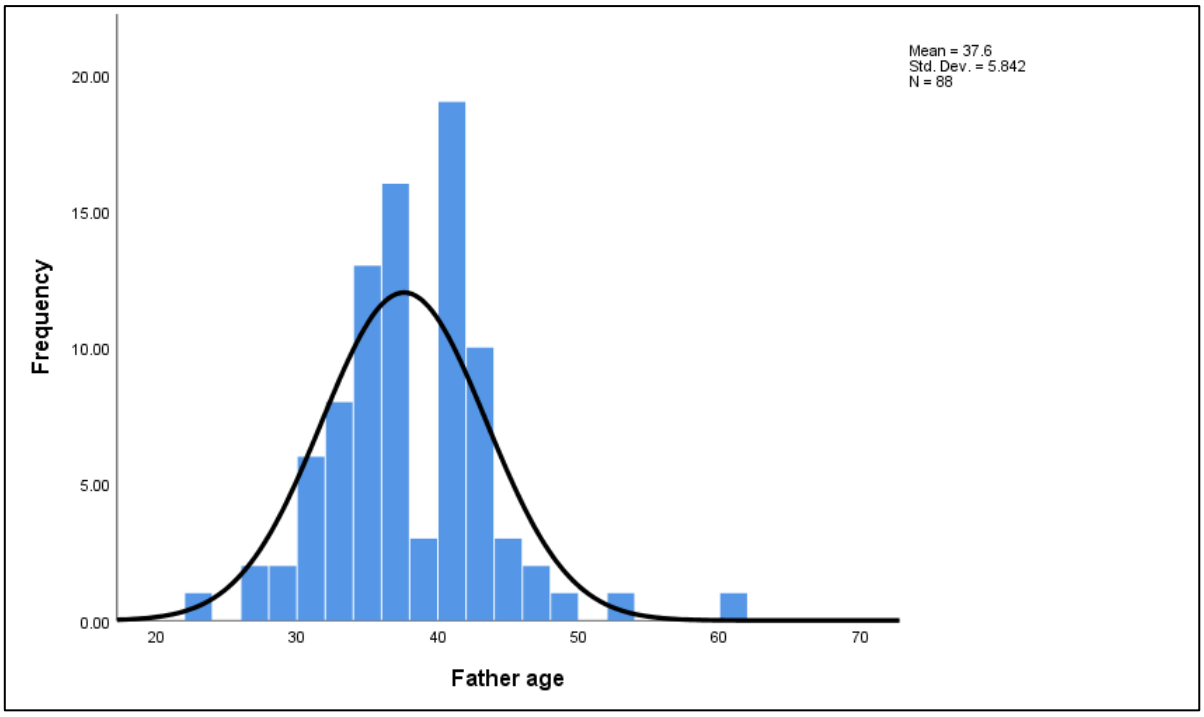

Figure 5.3. **Distribution of participating fathers by age**

The results show that the age range for the participating fathers was 37, with a minimum age of 23 and a maximum age of 60 with the mean of $\bar{x}$ = 37.60 and the standard deviation of σ = 5.845. For the participating mothers the age range was 35 with a minimum age of 23 and a maximum age of 44 with the mean of $\bar{x}$ = 35.53 and the standard deviation of σ = 4.565.

Table 5.6

Parent distribution by language (n=177)

Variable		F	Percentage
Language	English	115	65%
	Afrikaans	62	35%

The results show that from the total sample of 177 parent participants, 65% (*n*=115) indicated English as their preferred language of communication and 35% (*n*=62) chose Afrikaans.

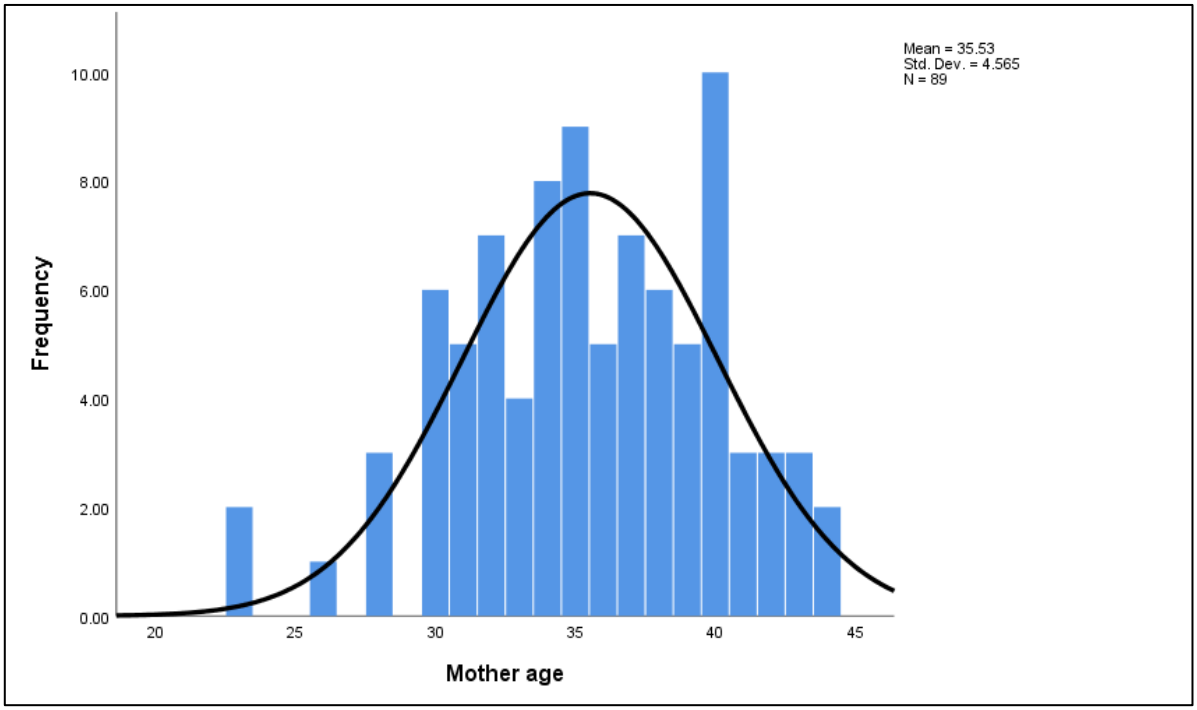

Figure 5.4. **Distribution of participating mothers by age**

Table 5.7

Profile of participating parents by ethnicity (n=177)

Ethnicity	F	Percentage
Black	102	58%
Coloured	7	4%
Indian	10	6%
White	58	32%
Total	**177**	**100%**

From the 177 participants that took part in the study and answered the relevant question 58% (*n*=102) parents were Black, 4% (*n*=7) were Coloured, 6% (*n*=10) were Indian and 32% (*n*=58) were White. It is clear that most parents were Black.

5.4.2 Participants in Phase 1

For the purpose of Phase 1 the researcher approached the six schools who participated in the pilot study. Information regarding the purpose of phase one was handed out to the principals of these schools.

After a week the researcher returned to the schools. Many of the principals indicated that due to the sensitivity of the research topic, they did not want to participate in Phase 1. Two of the schools indicated that they already had a bullying programme implemented in their schools. Only school B agreed to participate in Phase 1 of the study.

The purpose of Phase 1 of this study was discussed in the presence of the school principal as well as the school governing body and the head of department who represented each grade. As there were newly elected members, I recapped the process where I also discussed the pilot study and the purpose thereof. Then I explained the process of selection of the participants for Phase 1 of the study. As many of the learners and their parents participated in the pilot study, I discussed the possibility of including these learners and their parents in this phase. The principal and the other members present indicated that they wanted as many parents and learners to participate and therefore they agreed to include the learners and their parents who participated in the pilot study to be included in this phase.

During the morning meeting, I discussed the study and the purpose of Phase 1 with all the educators. I also explained the selection of the participants where I requested the teachers to complete the form where they had to indicate the number of bullies in their class and the type of behaviour displayed by them. I discussed the requirements set out by the GDE for non-bully learners to also be identified and then included in Phase 1 to prevent the bullies from being identified.

The teachers of the learners who participated in the pilot study were approached and requested to identify bullies and non-bullies from the group. As discussed in Chapter 1, the teachers had to follow the criteria set out for the identification of the bullies for the purpose of this study. As the criteria were developed specifically for the purpose of this study, it is therefore not a conclusive identification.

The following day, I approached the learners and explained the purpose of Phase 1 and invited the learners to participate in the study. All the learners indicated that they would participate, and information letters and consent forms were handed out.

After a week, I collected all the forms completed by the teachers and the signed consent forms returned by the learners. All the learners who participated in the pilot study and their parents agreed to take part in Phase 1 of the study. Only the learners who returned their signed consent forms were included in the study.

The total number of learners and parents who participated in Phase 1 is shown in Table 5.8. Further detail on the sample is presented and discussed in Chapter 6.

5.4.3 Participants in Phase 2

The sampling technique used in Phase 2 of this study was a purposive sample design (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

Table 5.8

Total number of participants included in Phase 1 of this study

Participant	N	Male	%	Female	%
Bullies	56	40	72%	15	28%
Parents of bullies	91	36	40%	55	60%
Non-bullies	56	24	43%	32	57%
Parents of bon-bullies	98	42	43%	56	57%
Total	**301**	**142**	**47%**	**158**	**53%**

The purpose of Phase 2 of this study was to implement the intervention programme and to determine whether increasing the EQ skills of bullies can assist in reducing bullying behaviour in the primary school context.

As Phase 2 of this study was also conducted at school B, I already had a list of the learners who were identified as bullies and non-bullies. Some of the teachers added some names to the list as newly identified.

A total of 60 learners identified as bullies and a total of 60 learners identified as non-bullies received consent forms to be signed by their parents to give permission to participate in Phase 2 of this study. Each learner also received a consent form which they were requested to sign as an indication that they want to take part in Phase 2 of this study. The letters were sent out on a Monday and collected from the learners on the Friday. Only the learners who returned the

consent form signed by their parents as well as the consent form signed by themselves were included in Phase 2 of the study.

The researcher first collected the consent forms signed by the learners identified as the bullies. After counting the forms, the researcher noticed that only 30 learners returned their signed consent forms. The researcher had to include the same number of non-bullies in the study and therefore she informed the learners who were identified as non-bullies that she can only include 30 learners in the study. The researcher then informed the non-bully learners that the first 30 learners to return their forms the following day would be included in the study.

From the 30 bullies who returned their consent forms, I then randomly selected 15 learners to form part of the experimental group and 15 for the control group. The researcher wrote the names of the 30 bullies on a list and then placed it in a hat. The first 15 names of pulled from the hat were included in the experimental group and the remaining 15 were then included in the control group. The same process was followed in the case of the non-bullies who returned their signed consent forms. The number of participants included in this phase of the study is shown in Table 5.9.

Table 5.9

Total number of participants included in Phase 2 of this study

Participant	**N**	**Male**	**%**	**Female**	**%**
Bullies (Experimental)	15	12	80%	3	20%
Non-bullies (Experimental)	15	5	33%	8	53%
Bullies (Control)	15	12	80%	3	20%
Non-bullies (Control)	15	3	20%	12	80%
Total	60	32	53%	26	47%

The chronological age in years indicated that the 15 bullying participants (n=15) in the experimental group had a mean age of $\bar{x}$= 9.6 with a standard deviation of σ = 2.09. The chronological age indicated that the 15 non-bullying participants (n=15) in the experimental group had a mean age of $\bar{x}$= 9.7 with a standard deviation of σ = 1.8. The chronological age in years indicated that the 15 bullying participants in the control group (n=15) had a mean age of

$\bar{x}$ = 10 with a standard deviation of σ = 2.1 and the chronological age in years indicated that the 15 non-bullying participants in the control group had a mean age of $\bar{x}$ = 9.4 and a standard deviation of σ = 2.0.

The participants that took part in Phase 2 of this study were from two racial groups, namely Black and Indian. The experimental group consisted of 29 (*n*=29) Black participants and only one (*n*=1) Indian participant. The control group consisted of 30 (*n*=30) Black participants.

5.5 MEASURING INSTRUMENTS

As discussed in Section 1.10, measuring instruments are the tools or devices used by researchers to collect the data needed for a study. For the purpose of this quantitative research study, I selected psychometric tests consisting of questionnaires for the collection of the data. The properties of each measure are discussed in the following subsections.

5.5.1 Demographic Questionnaire

The purpose of a demographic questionnaire is to collect basic information about participants to gain a better understanding of their background and where they fit into the population. A demographic questionnaire covers factors such as age, race, ethnicity, gender, marital status, education, living arrangements and employment.

The literature provided information regarding various demographic attributes that may play a role in some children being more at risk of being bullied or engaging in bullying behaviour. Various studies found that socio-economic status such as the employment or unemployment of a parent can play a role in some children being more at risk of bullying others.

In the pilot study of this research project, the parents of the participating learners were requested to complete the self-developed demographic questionnaire (see Appendix 14). They were requested to provide information on their background and current family situation. The variables that were identified for the purpose of this study included (1) gender, (2) age, (3) place of birth, (4) race, (5) marital status, (6) highest level of education, (7) employment, (8) number of members living together, (9) family size, (9) type of home, (10) number of bedrooms (11) child own room or sharing, (12) parents' definition of bullying, (13) parents' view on child being a bully or not, (14) history of bullying (were parents' involved in any form of bullying behaviour or were they victims of bullying), (15) parents' history of being expelled, (16)

parenting style, (17) does child own a cell phone and, (18) child's access to the Internet. This information was used only to describe the sample.

5.5.2 BarOn Emotional Intelligence Quotient (BarOn EQ-i:YV)

The BarOn EQ-i:YV was used in the pilot study, Phase 1 and Phase 2. In the pilot study the aim was to determine whether this instrument was appropriate for the use in the South African context for learners between the ages of 7 and 13 years.

This instrument was also included in Phase 1 of the study, where the aim was to compare the results between the participants to answer the hypothesis developed in this study. In Phase 2 of the study, the BarOn EQ-i:YV was used pre and post the emotional intelligence skills enhancement development programme to observe the effect of the intervention programme on the emotional intelligence of the learners.

The BarOn EQ-i:YV is based on the Bar-On model of emotional and social intelligence. According to the Bar-On model, emotional intelligence relates to the emotional, personal and social dimensions of intelligence. As stated in Chapters 2 and 3, emotional intelligence comprises abilities related to understanding the self and others, relating to people, adapting to the demands of a changing environment and managing emotions of the self and others (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). The Bar-On model of emotional intelligence pertains to the emotional, personal and social dimensions of a child's intelligence. An emotionally intelligent child will thus be capable of understanding him or herself and others and can relate to others and be flexible to adapt to any environmental changes or demands (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

The BarOn EQ-i:YV is a self-report measure aimed at determining underlying emotional and social challenges in children and adolescents between the ages of 7 and 18 years old. This assessment is strength-based, and it highlights the areas in which the child or adolescent is high functioning as well as the areas where assistance and support are needed for growth and development to occur. It is considered a useful tool that can be used to identify children and adolescents' strengths and weaknesses in order to assist them to develop the necessary skills needed for personal, social and academic success. Professionals in counselling and clinical environments can use the measure to assess the emotional health of children. It can be used in educational environments to assist learners in coping with the demands of the school that may lead to poor academic performance, dropping out of school and the prevention of the development of behavioural and emotional problems.

The BarOn EQ-i:YV is a unique integration of theoretical knowledge, empirical sophistication and state-of-the-art psychometric testing techniques. This instrument was tested and found to be valid and reliable and it offers the tester several important features which include:

- Multidimensional scales that assess the core feature of the emotional intelligence levels of children between the ages of 7 and 18.
- It is based on a large norm of nearly 10 000 children.
- It includes gender and age specific norms for four different age groups between the ages of 7 and 18 years.
- It includes a positive impression scale that can be used for the identification of individuals who may be at risk of creating exaggerated positive impressions of who they think they are.
- It includes a correction factor that enables the tester to adjust for positive response bias when administered to the younger children (ages 7 to 9).
- It also includes an inconsistency index which is specially designed to detect inconsistent responses by the respondents.
- It is an easy self-report questionnaire with easy scoring methods, and it provides the opportunity to profile the results (Al Said, Birdsey, & Stuart-Hamilton, 2013; Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

The measure consists of 60 items which are distributed across five scales. The scales are listed in Table 5.10. Four of the subscales are combined to measure the total emotional intelligence: 1 – intrapersonal (e.g. I can easily describe my feelings), 2 – interpersonal (e.g. I can tell when one of my close friends are unhappy, 3) – stress management (e.g. I can stay calm when I am upset) and 4 – adaptability (e.g. Even if things get hard I do not give up) (BarOn & Parker, 2000). The BarOn EQ-i:YV measure is suitable for children and adolescents and separate norms are available for both males and females in three-year intervals. The normative data for this measure come from a large community-based sample of children and adolescents which were collected from various English-speaking locations in the United States and Canada. There are currently no South African norms available for this measure.

Table 5.10

BarOn EQ-i:YV scales and number of questions per scale

Scales	Number of questions per scale
Intrapersonal scale	6 questions
Interpersonal scale	12 questions
Stress management scale	12 questions
Adaptability scale	12 questions
General mood scale	10 questions

The BarOn EQ-i:YV makes use of a 4-point Likert-style format in which the respondents are required to rate each item as to the extent that the question relates to them. The response options require the respondent to indicate whether the question is 1) *"Very Seldom True of them",* 2) *"Seldom True of Them",* 3) *"Often True of Them" or* 4) *"Very often True of Them"* (Bar-On & Parker, 2000, p. 2).

The administration of the assessment does not require accreditation as in the case with the EQ-I for adults. However, it can only be administered by a professional in the counselling and clinical field such as psychologists as it is considered a classified assessment under the list provided by the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA). I am a registered counselling psychologist. The assessment was easily accessible as it could be purchased from the Jopie van Rooyen & Partners Group in Randburg in South Africa.

The BarOn EQ-i: YV is described as a practical and efficient instrument that can be easily administered and scored. The 60 brief questions can be completed within 25 to 30 minutes. When missing responses occur during the scoring process, the unanswered item is scored as "0". Substituting the real scores with a zero score will bring the raw and standard scores down. The missing items should be noted during the interpretation of the results. The greater the number of omitted responses, the less accurate and meaningful the results will be. The measure should not be scored if the respondent has omitted more than six items (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

A different number of raw scores are generated on the profile form. A standard score has a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15 in all samples across all scales. The BarOn EQ-i:YV profile forms are two-sided with standard score information for male participants on the one side and females on the other side. For the males and females, standard score information

is available for four different age groups (7-9-year-olds, 10-12-year-olds, 13-15-year-olds and 16-18-year-olds). The raw scores on the response sheet are transferred on to the scoring page which is marked A, B, C, D, E, F and G. These letters represent the different scales. The raw scores from each total box at the bottom of the page are then transferred to a profile form. The total EQ is determined when the scale totals for column A to D is divided by its corresponding number beneath the column. The equation provided must then be calculated and the result is then written in a box marked as F which then provides the result for the total EQ score.

The first step when interpreting the results involves the examination of the individual responses. When the scale scores are low, the items that comprise those scales should be examined to gain a better understanding of the nature of the reported problem. Conversely, when the scale scores are high, the same procedure of reviewing the individual items is very helpful when one wants to identify the areas of strength in the social and emotional functioning of the respondent (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

According to Bar-On and Parker (2000), when an individual has a standard score below 80 on the Total Emotional Intelligence scale, this individual can be described as having an under-developed capacity for emotional- and social-intelligence behaviour. However, such a score also indicates that there is room for improvement when the correct intervention or training is provided to the respondent. They went on to explain that when the standard scores are used, high scores will indicate high levels of emotional intelligences and lower scores will indicate lower levels of emotionally intelligent behaviour. The standard scores allow the tester to directly compare the scores on one scale and thereafter on another scale. It will only be possible to make such a comparison when the raw score is transformed into a standard score as the number of items per scale as indicated in Table 5.10 varies.

It is important to note that the standard scores which are used in this measure are linear standard scores and the linear scores do not transform the actual distributions of the variables in any way. The interpretive guidelines for the standard scores are provided in Table 5.11.

The internal reliability of a measure refers to the degree to which all the items on a particular scale consistently measure the construct it is meant to measure. The internal reliability of the BarOn EQ-i:YV was measured with Cronbach's alpha and the coefficients were found to be satisfactory across the various normative groups (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). The reliability coefficients for the scales are presented separately by gender and group. The test-retest reliabilities for the different scales were found to be outstanding. Test-retest

reliability of a measure refers to the temporal stability of the responses of the respondents. According to Bar-On (2000), the stability of the BarOn EQ-i:YV is examined using a test-retest interval of three weeks in a sample of 60 children and adolescents with a mean age of 13.15 years.

Table 5.11

BarOn EQ-i:YV Interpretive Guidelines for Standard Scores

Range	Guidelines
130+	**Markedly High:** the respondent has a well-developed emotional and social capacity.
120-129	**Very High:** the respondent has an extremely high developed emotional and social capacity.
110-119	**High:** the respondent has a well-developed emotional and social capacity.
90-109	**Average:** the respondent has adequate emotional and social capacity.
80-90	**Low:** the respondent has an underdeveloped emotional and social capacity – however, some room for improvement.
70-79	**Very low:** the respondent has an extremely underdeveloped emotional and social capacity with considerable room for improvement.
Under 70	**Markedly low:** the respondent has an impaired emotional and social capacity.

Note. BarOn, 2000, p. 1

The validity of an instrument refers to the extent to which it accurately measures the construct on constructs that was designed by the developer to be assessed. The BarOn EQ-i:YV demonstrated sufficient construct validity. Factorial validity refers to the structure of an instrument and whether the factors included in the instrument make sense for the target respondents.

Although there are currently no norms available for South Africa, the BarOn EQ-i:YV has been used in South Africa by various researchers who aimed at studying the emotional and social skills of children or adolescents. In their study "Strengthening intellectually challenged adolescents' sense of self: An appreciative inquiry mixed methods intervention", the BarOn EQ-i:YV questionnaire was used to measure the emotional and social intelligence of the participating adolescents. The researchers found the internal consistency of the measure to be strong (a = 0.65-0.90) across several studies (BarOn, 1997, 2004; Louw, Grobler & Cowden, 2018).

In another local study "The Application of Emotional Intelligence Incorporated in Therapy to a Vehicle Hijack Survivor", conducted by Symington (2006), the researcher chose the Baron EQ-i:YV measure to identify the areas of difficulty experienced by the survivor of a high jacking to be addressed during the therapeutic intervention.

In both studies the researchers found the BarOn EQ-i:YV measure to be valid and reliable and appropriate for the use in the South African context.

5.5.3 Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults

The Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for adults was included in the pilot study to determine the reliability and appropriate use in the South African context. It was then again used in Phase 1 to compare the results of the participating parents to answer the hypothesis developed in this study.

For practical reasons and cost-effectiveness, a questionnaire was developed that was appropriate for the purpose of this study.

The Bar-On model provides the theoretical basis for the measurement of emotional intelligence. According to this model, emotional and social intelligence is a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators which determine the effectiveness with which individuals are able to express themselves, understand the emotions and actions of others and to relate with other individuals and finally to have the ability to cope with environmental demands and changes (Bar-On, 2006; Bar-On & Handley, 2003).

The emotional and social competencies, skills and facilitators include five key components as described in the above which are a) the ability of an individual to recognise, understand and express their own feelings and emotions; b) the ability of an individual to understand the reasons for other people's feelings and the ability to relate with them; c) the ability of an individual to manage and control their own emotions; d) the ability of an individual to manage, change, adapt and solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature; and finally e) the ability of an individual to generate positive affect and the ability to motivate themselves (Bar-On, 2006; Bar-On & Handley, 2003). Each of these five components comprises several closely related competencies, skills and facilitators described in Table 5.12.

Consistent with the Bar-On model, individuals who are classified as socially and emotionally intelligent will be characterised by the ability of not only understanding their own emotions and feelings, but also having a true understanding for the emotions and feelings of

others. According to Bar-On (2006), this ability is based on an individual's intrapersonal ability which refers to the ability to not only be aware of yourself but also the awareness of your strengths and shortfalls and most importantly, the importance of an individual's ability to express their feelings and emotions in a socially acceptable manner. On an interpersonal level, individuals are considered as emotionally and socially intelligent when they can be aware of the emotions, feelings and needs of others and to be able to establish and maintain meaningful, co-operative long-lasting relationships with others.

Table 5.12

Self-developed EQ Questionnaire: Scales and the number of questions per scale

SCALE	NUMBER OF QUESTIONS
Intrapersonal	
Emotional self-awareness	8 Questions
Assertiveness	8 Questions
Independence	9 Questions
Self-regard	7 Questions
Self-actualisation	8 Questions
Total	**40 Questions**
Interpersonal	
Empathy	8 Questions
Social responsibility	8 Questions
Interpersonal relationship	7 Questions
Total	**23 Questions**
Stress management	
Stress tolerance	8 Questions
Impulse control	8 Questions
Total	**16 Questions**
Adaptability	
Reality testing	8 Questions
Flexibility	8 Questions
Problem-solving	8 Questions
Total	**24 Questions**
General mood	
Optimism	8 Questions
Happiness	9 Questions
Total	**17 Questions**

The questionnaire used in the present study was based on the Bar-On model as operationalized in Bar-On's EQ-I measure for adults (Bar-On, 2006). Various articles and

questionnaires which focused on the measurement of the sub-scales were consulted in order to determine the type of questions that should be included in the questionnaire (Bar-On, 2006; Van Zyl, 2014). The present questionnaire was only developed for the purpose of this study and is not publicly available.

It offers the following important features:

- It is an easy self-report questionnaire with easy scoring methods and provides the ability to profile the results.
- It can be used to assess the emotional intelligence levels of adults from the age of 19 years and older.

The questionnaire consists of 120 items which are distributed across the 5 scales and 15 sub-scales (See Table 5.12). This questionnaire makes use of a 4-point Likert-style format in which the respondents are required to rate each item as to the extent that the question relates to them. The response options require the respondent to indicate whether the question is, Very Seldom True, Seldom True, Often True or Very often true.

The Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for adults is a practical and efficient instrument that can be easily administered. The questionnaire can be completed within 25 to 30 minutes.

To determine the Total EQ, the total raw score on each scale is divided by the number of questions in the scale. The derived scores for each scale are then added and multiplied by 5 which is the total number of scales. The total is then the Total EQ score.

Minimum score and maximum score:

- Intrapersonal Scale – Minimum score = 40 – Maximum score = 160
- Interpersonal Scale – Minimum score = 23 – Maximum score = 92
- Stress Management Scale – Minimum score = 16 – Maximum score = 64
- Adaptability Scale – Minimum score = 24 – Maximum score = 96
- General Mood Scale – Minimum score = 17 – Maximum score = 68
- Total EQ – Minimum score = 24 – Maximum score is 96

Only the raw scores were used to compare the bully and non-bully parents. No standardisation was done and no norm tables are therefore available.

As indicated, the reliability of the newly developed questionnaire was determined in the present study (see Chapter 6). The reliability of the BarOn measure, the EQ-i have been

examined by many researchers and the questionnaire was found to be consistent, stable and reliable (Dawda & Hart, 2000; Van Zyl, 2014). The overall consistency is .97 based on the North American normative sample.

The EQ-I measure has been used in various studies in South Africa. In a study conducted by Mayer, Oosthuizen, and Surtee (2016), the purpose was to explore the EI of South African women in leadership positions. The researchers chose the EQ-I measure to determine the strengths and possible areas of development.

In another study conducted by Van der Westhuizen (2005), the researcher deemed it important to investigate the different types of measures available to measure the construct EI before researching the construct EI and its predictive validity for work performance. The researcher compared the Bar-On EQ-I and the OPQ32i which is a competency-based personality questionnaire. The study also explored the degree of the construct correlation between the two instruments. The results indicated a significant construct overlap and correlations between the two instruments.

5.5.4. Parent-Child Relationship Inventory (PCRI)

The PCRI was also included in the pilot study to determine the appropriateness of its use in the South African context as there are no South African norms available for this measure. It was then again used in phase one to compare the results of the participants in order to provide an answer for the hypothesis that was developed by the researcher.

The PCRI is designed to assess parents' attitudes toward parenting and toward their children. The goal of the measure is not to replace a qualitative evaluation of parent-child interactions, but it helps to put qualitative impressions in perspective by making normative comparisons possible. The goal is to identify specific aspects of a parent-child relationship that may cause problems, and to provide an overall picture of the quality of the relationship. The PRCI is a 78-item, self-report questionnaire that can be administered to either an individual or a group in about 15 minutes. The items were selected to measure a wide range of parenting dispositions and behaviours. Some of the items present general attitudes toward being a parent and others are intended to elicit responses specific to a parent's relationship with their child. All the items shown in Table 5.13 have a Likert-type, 4-point response format which ranges from strongly agree to strongly disagree. It contains 7 different scales namely: Parental Support Scale, Satisfaction with parenting, Involvement scale, Communication scale, Limit scale, Autonomy scale and Role orientation. The PRCI also includes two validity indicators namely

Social Desirability (SOL) and Inconsistency (INC). The SOL consists of 5 items that are rarely endorsed in the positive direction. The INC consists of 10 highly correlated items (Gerard, 2010).

In the case where the respondent did not give a response to nine or more items, the protocol is not valid and should therefore not be scored. A score of 9 or less on the social desirability indicator suggests that the respondent's responses may have been strongly influenced by a desire to present their situations in a positive light. It is important for the tester to keep in mind that a maximum number of inconsistencies are 10 as a high score suggests the possibility that the respondent has responded inconsistently, inattentively and or randomly (Gerard, 2010).

Table 5.13

Parent-Child Relationship Scales

SCALE	NUMBER OF ITEMS	PURPOSE
1. Parental Support scale (SUP)	Consist of 9 items	Assess the level of emotional and social support a parent receives
2. Satisfaction with Parenting scale (SAT)	Consists of 10 items	Measures the amount of pleasure and fulfilment an individual derives from being a parent.
3. Involvement scale	Consists of 14 items	Examines the level of a parent's interaction and knowledge of his or her child.
4. Communication scale (COM)	Consists of 9 positively keyed items	Assesses a parent's perception of how effectively he or she communicates with their child.
5. Limit Setting scale (LIM)	Contains 12 items which are all negatively keyed	Focuses on a parent's experience disciplining their child.
6. Autonomy scale (AUT)	Consists of 10 items	Assesses the parent's ability to promote the independence of a child.
7. Role Orientation scale (ROL)	Comprising 9 items	Examines a parent's attitude about gender roles in parenting.

Note. Gerard, 2010, p. 1

Normative data were collected from 1 139 mothers and fathers in 18 schools and day care centres in the United States. The day care centres and schools were selected after 2 000 emails were sent to various principals and directors of the schools and day care centres.

The researchers collected the data either by sending packages home with the students for their parents to complete in the comfort of their own homes or during parent meetings.

To determine the internal consistency of the PCRI scales, the researchers used the standardisation sample. The statistic used to measure or estimate the internal consistency is coefficient alpha. According to Gerard (2010), the internal consistency estimates of psychological tests should be .70. No value for the PCRI was below 0.70 and the median value was 0.82.

The retest stability of the PCRI was measured twice and the results showed that the PCRI has a good temporal stability (Gerard, 2000).

The item selection and generation for the PCRI was used to ensure that the items adequately characterised the important parenting values and attitudes (i.e. content validity). To establish a scale structure, a series of factor-analytic studies were conducted by means of a preliminary item set.

The central construct validity questions for the PCRI focused on determining whether the domain of the attitudes and values of the parents were specific enough to be measured and whether the results of the measure will have characteristics consistent with what is known about parenting in general (Gerard, 2000). As mentioned earlier, the technique for calculating alpha coefficients will only yield high values when the items on a scale reflect a unitary dimension. The high reliability of the PCRI scales indicate that the scales represent coherent constructs. According to Gerard (2000), the coherence only suggests that a correspondence between the item content of the scales and the underlying constructs the scales are designed to represent.

In South Africa, the PCRI was used in various studies by researchers who showed an interest in the relationship between parents and their children. Such studies include the study conducted by Thompson in 2012 *("Psychologists Practices in Child Custody Evaluations: Guidelines")*. The aim of the study was:

"*to illuminate current practice, compare the assessment methodologies utilised by psychologists in South Africa with the 8 practices of psychologists as evidenced by national and international research, point to problem areas and provide suggestions for improvement"* (Thompson, 2012, p. 7).

Another study conducted in the South African context which included the PCRI was the study by Vuza (2018), (*An Exploration of Adolescent Substance Users and the Parent-Child*

Relationship in Mitchell's Plain). In her study she explored the substance abuse of adolescents and the relationship these adolescents have with their parents.

5.5.5 Parenting Style Questionnaire (PSQ)

During the 1960's to 1971, Diana Baumrind who worked in the field of developmental psychology described three different types of parenting styles based on her research with primary school children. The parenting styles include authoritative, authoritarian and permissive.

The PSQ was derived from the Parental Authority Questionnaire developed by Buri in 1991 and Robinson et al., 1995. The original PSQ consists of 62 items which are divided into the authoritative scale consisting of 27 items with a Cronbach's alpha of .91, the authoritarian scale consisting of 20 items with a Cronbach's alpha of .86 and the permissive scale consisting of 15 items with a Cronbach's alpha of .75. For the current study the researcher used the PSQ short form which was adapted by Moghadam, Hemmatinezhad, Behrozi, and Ahmadzade in 2014. This instrument also includes the three parenting styles authoritarian, authoritative and permissive parenting styles. The scales and the number of questions per scale are outlined in Table 5.14.

This questionnaire is available in English and can be completed within 10 minutes. The minimum and maximum score are as follow:

Authoritative	–	Minimum score = 13 and Maximum score	= 13 x 6	= 78
Authoritarian	–	Minimum score = 13 and Maximum score	= 13 x 6	= 78
Permissive	–	Minimum score = 4 and Maximum score	= 4 x 6	= 24

The scores on the questionnaire range from "never" to "always" on a 6-point Likert Scale. The scoring of the questionnaire to identify the preferred parenting style is easy as it involves summing the individual items to comprise the subscale scores. The score obtained is then divided by the corresponding number of items (Alnafea & Curtis, 2017; Buri, 1991; Matias & Lopez, 2017; Moghadam et al., 2014; Papazova & Garvanova, 2019; Robinson et al., 1995).

One of the main parenting styles identified by Baumrind is the Authoritative parenting style. This style is often referred to as the "democratic" parenting style and involves a child-centric approach which means that parents hold high expectations for their children. Parents

Table 5.14

Three Parenting Style Prototypes

PARENTING STYLE	NUMBER OF QUESTIONS PER STYLE
Authoritative Parenting Style Dimensions:	13 Questions
1) Support and affection	
2) Regulation	
3) Autonomy	
Authoritarian Parenting Style Dimensions:	13 Questions
1) Physical coercion	
2) Verbal hostility	
3) Punishment	
Permissive Parenting Style Dimension:	4 Questions
1) Indulgence	

with an authoritative parenting style are described as parents who want their children to use reasoning and work independently, but they also set high expectations for their children. When their children behave in a socially unacceptable manner they will be disciplined in a fair and consistent manner.

According to Baumrind (1971), the authoritative parenting style is the most accepted way of raising children as children tend to be more successful, happy and content. Parents who choose a more authoritarian parenting style are described as obedience and status orientated who sets high expectations for their children. Baumrind (1971) went on to describe these parents as use punishment rather than disciplining their children. However, parents with this type of style will explain the reasoning behind their rules.

Children who are raised in an authoritarian home environment are described as being aggressive towards others outside their home environment. They also tend to associate obedience and success with love. Unlike children who are raised by authoritative parents, children raised in an authoritarian home environment is not given the opportunity to explore and act independently, therefore they are often not able to set their own limits and personal goals (Alnafea & Curtis, 2017; Baumrind, 1971; Buri, 1991: Darling & Sternberg, 1993; Matias & Lopez, 2017; Niaraki & Rahimi, 2012).

The third parenting style, permissive parenting style is often described as the indulgent parenting style. Parents who exhibit this style do not tend to expect too much of their children by setting high expectations. As these parents have low expectations for self-control and maturity, they also do not discipline their children in a consistent manner. According to Baumrind (1971), permissive parents are very nurturing and loving towards their children. They are often described as rather being their child's friend than acting as a parent.

Children who are raised by parents who exhibit a permissive parenting style is described as lacking self-discipline, self-involved and demanding and may feel insecure due to the lack of boundaries set by their parents (Baumrind, 1971; Buri, 1991: Darling & Sternberg, 1993; Matias & Lopez, 2017; Niaraki & Rahimi, 2012; Robinson et al., 1995; Smetana, 2017).

There are currently no South African norms for this questionnaire. In a study conducted by Roman, Makwaka, and Lacante (2016) the researchers stated that research on the parenting styles of South African parents is limited.

Alnafea and Curtis (2017) conducted a study on the influence of mothers' parenting styles on self-regulated academic learning among Saudi primary school learners. The research included 351 primary school learners and their mothers. The research for their study was conducted using a cross-sectional survey design in which the participating mothers were requested to complete the PSQ. The results from the descriptive statistics showed that the mothers perceived themselves as more inclined to the authoritative parenting style (M = 5.04, SD = .83) than the authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. The inclination of the mothers towards a more authoritative parenting style was positively related to the self-efficacy of the learners. This shows that the authoritative parenting style should be adopted by all parents of Saudi learners in order to improve their self-efficacy.

5.5.6 Teacher Rating Scale

This measure was a self-developed measure. Each teacher who identified bullies and non-bullies received a teacher evaluation questionnaire. The teachers were requested to complete the form every day of the week (Monday to Friday). An example of the evaluation form appears in Table 5.15.

Each day the teachers were requested to indicate the negative and positive behaviours observed. At the end of the day a score out of 10 is given. The example shows that the learner only scored 3 out of 10 as it shows that only 3 positive behaviours were observed.

Table 5.15

Example of the Teacher Rating Scale

MONDAY			
POSITIVE		**NEGATIVE**	
Respect teachers		Disrespect	X
Respect self		No respect for self	X
Behave in class	X	Disruptive	
Respect peers		No respect for peers	X
No bullying		Bullying behaviour was observed	X
Complete work	X	Incomplete work	
Can control emotions		Inability to control emotions	X
Shows empathy		Inability to show empathy	X
Shows positive attitude		Negative attitude observed	X
Complete homework	X		
Total out of 10 = 3			

At the end of the week the teachers had to give a score out of 50 and at the end of 10 weeks, all the scores were calculated to give a score out of 500. Any learner who scored below 250 or below 50% displayed more negative behaviour during the 10-week evaluation.

This evaluation form was also handed out after the intervention programme was implemented for me to determine whether the intervention programme had an effect on the learners who were identified as bullies. I wanted to determine whether there was a difference in their score achieved pre the intervention programme in terms of their behaviour. When the identified bully scored higher than 250 or 50%, the score indicated that some positive behaviour was noticed by their teachers.

5.6 INTERVENTION PROGRAMME

5.6.1 Content and procedure

Before the administration of the instrument, proper rapport was established with all the participants. The relevant informed consent forms and information page of the research project were explained to all participants. The participation of the identified bullying and non-bullying participants for this intervention programme was based on their voluntary participation as well as meeting the inclusion criteria.

Two separate groups, namely the control group that was not exposed to the intervention programme and the experimental group that participated in the intervention programme were formed in during the fourth school term of 2017. Each participant in the intervention programme received a workbook as well as a homework book. A summary of the programme is shown in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16

Emotional Intelligence Skills Enhancement Intervention Programme Topic Summary

WEEK	GROUP SESSION	TOPIC
Week 1	**Session 1:** Intrapersonal activities Experimental group	Introduction and signing of confidentiality contracts
Week 2	**Session 2:** Experimental group Self-awareness	I am unique My superpowers
Week 3	**Session 3:** Experimental group Emotional self-awareness	How do I feel? Where do I feel? What do I do with the feelings?
Week 4	**Session 4:** Experimental group Assertiveness	I can Who is the boss?
Week 5	**Session 5:** Experimental group Self-Actualisation	Responsible me
Week 6	**Session 6:** Interpersonal activities Empathy Experimental group	I understand me I understand you I care
Week 7	**Session 7:** Experimental group Social responsibility	Interpersonal relationships I care I have and I can make friends
Week 8	**Session 8:** Adaptability activities Experimental group Adaptability	Problem-solving - Trial and Error
Week 9	**Session 9:** Experimental group Choices	Choices, responsibilities and consequences
Week 10	**Session 10:** Stress management Experimental group Stress control	Breath before you squeeze Impulse control Self-care
Week 11	**Session 11:** Positive mood activities Optimism Experimental group	Positive attitude
Week 12	**Session 12:** How to help others – skills activities Experimental group Helping others	*Continues on next page …* Bully Buddy I
Week 13	**Session 13:** Experimental group	Post-test Certificate ceremony

The first 5 to 10 minutes of the session were utilised for the ice-breaker. Later the first 5 to 15 minutes of the session were utilised for revision of the previous session and the ice-breaker for the new session. A total of 12 sessions were conducted. All of the intervention sessions were conducted by the researcher and in the researcher's classroom.

As stated earlier, the themes were the same but the layout of the questions and the type of activities differed. I had to take the level of concentration span of the younger participants into account during the design of the activities. Younger learners in general have a shorter concentration span than older learners. Therefore, to prevent the older learners from losing interest in the presentation of the programme, I decided to split the age groups.

During the development of the activities for the different ages, I focused on simplifying the writing activities. For the younger learners I included multiple choice types of questions whereas the older learners had to write sentences. I also planned the sessions to be shorter for the younger learners and more time was spent with the older learners. For example, when doing the ice-breakers or doing revision on the activities on the previous topic, I included ice-breakers which did not take as long as the ice-breakers included for the older learners.

5.6.2 Experimental group

Each of the aforementioned topics was covered with a specific objective and goal to be achieved weekly. I facilitated the group and activity sessions throughout the intervention programme. The intervention programme generally targeted the enhancement of the skills an individual requires to be regarded as emotionally intelligent. The intervention programme thus included activities that focused on the improvement of the participant's self-awareness including emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, self-actualisation, empathy, social responsibility, adaptability, making choices, stress management and stress control and positive mood activities which included optimism.

To achieve optimal results from the intervention programme, the intervention consisted of practical activities as well as the completion of a workbook and a homework book. During each session the participants completed the section on the specific topic in their workbook. At the end of each session, the participants completed the evaluation questionnaire. The success of the session which included the presentation of the activities, understanding and enjoyment of the session by the participants was measured by the mark out of 10 allocated after the session. This mark was also written in the workbook after the programme evaluation questions. After each session, the participants were given a homework activity based on the topic of the day, to

be completed at home. The rationale for giving homework was to attempt to get the parents or guardians involved as various research studies showed that parents play critical roles in the prevention of bullying behaviour (Hemphill, 2014; Holt, Finkelhor, & Kaufman Kantor, 2009).

Various resources were used namely, games, board games, video clips, physical activities and role-play and movies (The Ant Bully). The programme remained consistent over the 12-week period starting with checking in with all the participants, summarising the topic of the previous week, homework discussion, ice-breaker, theoretical information on the new topic, practical activities, workbook activity and fun activities which helped the participants to remember the new skill or skills that was learned.

I ensured that confidentiality, unconditional acceptance and empathy were maintained throughout the programme as many of the participants shared personal experiences. The fact that many of the participants shared the same experiences helped the other participants to experience a feeling of understanding and they could identify with the other participants. They were comforted by the realisation that they were not alone in their struggle. The participants also came to realise the extent of bullying behaviour and the impact it had on their families, friends and peers at school and in the classroom. The impact of bullying behaviour within the school context and the effect it had on peers, friends and teachers were better understood when one of the participants in the older age group were almost expelled mid-intervention due to being disrespectful towards a teacher, being truant from school and class and emotionally and verbally abusing a learner who expressed his feelings towards the participant regarding his behaviour towards the teacher and the learners. The participants from this school saw the effects and consequences of bullying behaviour as an eye-opener and I observed that they were asking more questions on how they stop their bullying behaviour and what else they needed to do to improve their behaviour. Before the participant returned to the group, I ensured that the rest of the group were not going to show any judgement towards him and that they will show empathy. The empathy topic therefore had to be discussed in week three and not in week six as it appeared in the layout of the intervention programme.

5.6.3 Control group

The participants assigned to the control group completed the pretest and posttest but were not exposed to the intervention programme. They were also evaluated by their teachers before and after the implementation of the intervention programme. The results of the pretest and posttest assessments (BarOn EQ-i:YV and Teacher Rating Scale) collected from the control

group participants were compared to the results of the experimental group. The objective was to determine whether the participants in the experimental group showed any improvement in their behaviour after the completion of the intervention programme compared to the control group participants who was not exposed to the intervention programme. The results are presented in Chapter 6 and discussed in Chapter 7 of this study.

5.6.4 Therapeutic criterion

As the participants were divided into groups, the setting created for the intervention was similar to a group therapy session. Group therapy is considered an efficient intervention and treatment modality as it is possible for the therapist to teach the skills that formed part of the aim and objective of the intervention programme. In this study the aim and objective of the intervention programme was to enhance the EQ skills of those learners who were identified as bullies and who were included in Phase 2 of this study to reduce bullying behaviour displayed by these learners within the primary school context. A group set-up also assists me in presenting information and engages participants within the same time frame. Alliance is conceptualised as a collaborative experience, characterised by an agreement on the goals set for the successful implementation of the intervention programme, the methods used to obtain these goals and the relational bond between the participants and me. Within the group setting, the alliance may be influenced by factors such as the relationships that develop between the participants who are participating in the group activities or forming part of an intervention programme group (Schneider, Corey, & Corey, 2008; Yalom & Leszcz, 2005).

In a group setting, group cohesion is a constructive interpersonal exploration through bonding with me as well as with the other participants to work together to reach common goals that were set for the session of the intervention programme. Mutual acceptance by the participants and identification with the participants who form part of the group is another important factor that may determine the success of the intervention programme. MacKenzie (1983) conceptualised group climate as the environmental force experienced by the participants within the group. The climate and the cohesion of the participants within the group setting may be influenced by factors such as the methods that are utilised to reach the goals set for the intervention programme. The group cohesion and group climate are also some of the factors that may influence the achievement of the goals (MacKenzie, Dies, Coché, Rutan, & Stone, 1987; Schneider Corey et al., 2008; Yalom & Leszcz, 2005).

5.6.5 Group process

Specific group norms were encouraged and established throughout the process. These norms focused on; 1) punctuality – arriving on time for the programme sessions, 2) confidentiality and respect for all the participants and me, 3) continuous attendance, 4) willingness to share personal experiences and struggles experienced, 5) honesty towards their fellow participants and me, 6) willingness to participate in group activities and challenging their socially unacceptable behaviour, 7) willingness to focus on the here and now and on planning for the future and, 8) willingness to act as bully buddy for any participating peer and for any other learner within the school context who were in need of support or guidance.

The group process was conducted according to the solution focused approach. Solution-Focused Brief Therapy (SFBT) was developed by Steve de Shazer (1940-2005), and Insoo Kim Berg (1934-2007). This approach is future-focused, goal-directed and focuses on solutions and not on the problems that brought individuals to therapy. The SFBT assumes that all individuals have some knowledge of the aspects they must add to their life or the skills they need to acquire to make their life better. The solution-focused model holds that focusing only on problems experienced by individuals is not an effective way of finding solutions for solving these problems. Within the group, I placed more importance on finding a solution for the problem behaviour exhibited by the participants than focusing only on bullying. I pointed out that in order to find a solution it is important to talk about the problem which was bullying behaviour. SFBT will not focus purely on what happened to the participants when they were much younger that would have led to them engaging in bullying behaviour, it roots the sessions in the present while working towards a future in which the current problem (bullying behaviour) has less of an impact on the participants' lives (Bannink, 2007; Lethem, 2002; Nylund & Corsiglia, 1994).

As I only had 12 sessions in which I could assist the participants to find solutions for their problem and to equip them with the necessary EQ skills that needed to be acquired in order to reduce the bullying behaviour, the SFBT approach together with the activities assisted me in achieving this goal.

To ensure the success of the group sessions, it was important for me to ensure that each participant experienced a sense of belonging in the group and that there was place for the participants to experience the changes in themselves and that this was assisted by the support from the other participants. During the intervention programme, I observed that those participants, who developed a sense of hope and the ability to find some solution for their

bullying behaviour problem, were able to use some of the skills learned during the sessions to create a shift in their bullying behaviour. The fact that the participants were able to share their stories in a safe environment assisted the sense of group cohesion (Yalom & Mitchell, 2004).

The participants who experienced unconditional acceptance from the other participants and who experience a sense of not being the only "bully" in the school, were also able to find solutions to their problem and were quicker to grasp the skills that they needed to acquire to improve their EQ. The sharing of information, discussion of the topic that was presented and each participant's struggle with not being identified as the school bully, was evident throughout the programme. Evidence that the participants acquired the skill of empathy was clear when the participants acted in a more respectful and understanding manner towards each other. The participants realised that they all shared a common behavioural problem and that one could not pretend to be better behaved than the other.

I assisted the participants in establishing a "bully buddy" system. With the system any participant who felt the urge to engage in bullying type of behaviour or who was struggling with any problem knew that there was someone to approach who would assist with providing support until the participant could find a solution or could move their thoughts away from engaging in the bullying type of behaviour. Each participant also received a bully buddy badge and the participants were also introduced to the school as individuals to who other learners could reach out to if they needed any type of support.

As there were participants who were isolated and who struggled to make friends, they were given the opportunity to experience a sense of socialising with their peers. These participants also experienced being listened to and learned how to listen to others without becoming angry or irritable. They learned how to value each participant's opinion without thinking that they are "stupid" or "losers" or that their opinions were "lame". Allowing the participants to hear and experience the effect their words had on other participants also assisted in gaining an understanding of what the effect of their verbal expressions may have on their peers. Being able to respectfully disagree with the opinions of the participants assisted with the development of the assertive skill. This means that the participants were experienced by the others as assertive and not as forcing their will or opinion on other participants in a bullying manner.

Through the role-play activities and in the safe group setting, the participants experienced the opportunity to challenge their existing patterns of bullying behaviour and thinking processes and together with the assistance of their fellow participants attempt new or alternative

strategies for them to display more socially-acceptable behaviour. For the participants the sense of being accepted by their peers allowed them to feel valued as individuals despite being identified as the school bullies. Being part of a group where they experienced a sense of belonging, the participants had the opportunity to be themselves, express their thoughts and feelings and develop skill in how to understand their own feelings and emotions better in order to better understand those of their peers and fellow participants. As a group the participants learned how the other participants coped within their environment, they exchanged strategies that worked in the past and developed new strategies amongst each other on how they are going to cope in the future. I observed that these participants learned to trust each other and viewed their fellow group members as their new support network. During the feedback sessions, the participants could not wait to share their experiences with the rest of the group. The shared joy of reaching a goal and the frustrations experienced when they were not successful in a new approach or testing new ways of dealing with the feelings and emotions of others and how the participants as a group assisted and comforted each other was an indication that the participants who started off scoring low on the EQ assessment, made progress and was developing EQ skills that would assist them in the future after the completion of the intervention programme.

The non-bullies who formed part of the group were extremely supportive. They shared their experiences and ideas. The role of the non-bullies was to support the bullies when the researcher was not available. As the bullies were given the role of "Bully Buddy" where they had to look out for other bullies and provide them with guidance and support, the non-bullies acted as the Bully Buddy for the bullies. During the sessions, the non-bullies initiated the conversations, especially when they noticed that the bullies were either shy or unsure. The non-bullies often used phrases such as "have you thought of", "what do you think about", "have you tried" or "what if". Sometimes the non-bullies in the older group acted as the facilitators which helped the bullies to feel more at ease. The researcher then just assisted when she noticed that they felt stuck or just needed support or encouragement.

5.7 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Quantitative data collection methods include objective measurements and involve statistical, numerical analysis of the data that were collected for the purpose of the research study. The data for the purpose of this study were collected using psychometric tests and questionnaires.

5.7.1 Pilot study data collection procedure

During the pilot study, a demographic questionnaire was administered to obtain detail on the sample.

Demographic questionnaire: This measure was completed by the parents of the participants to collect background information. The parents were required to complete the questions based on their age, race, marital status, highest level of education, employment, parenting style and history of involvement in bullying behaviour. The demographic questionnaire was only used to describe the sample.

Bar-On EQ-i:YV: This questionnaire was used to measure the level of emotional intelligence of the participating learners. There are no South African norms available and therefore it was important to determine whether this measure was suitable for the use on South African children between the ages of 7 and 13 years old.

Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults: This measure was developed by me after intensive research was done on the development of a questionnaire that will be appropriate for the determining the emotional intelligence levels of parents in this context. The reliability of this measure was determined and is presented in Chapter 6 and discussed in Chapter 7.

Parent-Child Relationship Inventory: The aim of this measure is to determine parents' satisfaction with the ability to form and maintain healthy relationships with their children. In the present study, the appropriate use of this measure on parents in the South African context was determined.

Parenting Style Questionnaire: This measure was used in the pilot study to determine the appropriateness in the South African context.

The data collection process for the pilot study took place in the third term of 2017. A total number of 100 learners and 177 parents participated in the pilot study. The parents completed the questionnaires on a Saturday morning in the school hall. I allowed the parents to leave after they completed their questionnaires. The parents were thus not required to wait for all the parents to complete their questionnaires before they were permitted to leave the hall. I was present during the process of the completion of the questionnaires and only left the hall when all the parents had handed in their completed questionnaires.

I firstly discussed the completion of the demographic questionnaire, followed by the self-developed emotional intelligence questionnaire, the parent-child-relationship inventory and

finally the parenting style questionnaire. Most of the participants completed the questionnaires within an hour to an hour and a half. As some parents were faster than others to complete the questionnaires and tests, I explained that they were permitted to leave as soon as they were done. I stayed until the last group of parents left during each session.

The BarOn EQ-i:YV was completed by the learners at the school. I visited each school on the day selected for the completion of the questionnaire. I was accompanied by a support teacher who is based at the same school where I am involved. The teacher only assisted with the handing out of the questionnaires and assisted learners who struggled with answering or understanding questions. I explained the instructions and the completion of the questionnaire. The measuring instruments (questionnaires) required self-completion by the participants with assistance given by me when required. Only the participants between the ages of 7 to 9 requested assistance from me. Most of the schools requested for the questionnaire to be completed during the register period which is the period just before break time. Learners who worked at a slower pace were permitted to complete the questionnaire during break time. The completion of the questionnaire took place between 9:00 am and 10:00 am. Most of the learners completed the BarOn EQ-i:YV within an hour. The principal arranged for the learners to complete the questionnaire in the hall in order to ensure that the completion happened in a disciplined and controlled manner. In some of the schools, the teachers stood at the back to assist with the discipline, but they did not interfere with the process.

5.7.2 Phase 1 data collection procedure

Phase 1 established the baseline data for identified bullies and compared this with the data for the identified non-bullying participants in terms of all the variables used in the study. The same measuring instruments that were used in the pilot study were also used for the collection of the data in Phase 1.

The data collection took place at school B which is also the school where I am involved. This made it easy to set a day and date for the learners to complete the BarOn EQ-i:YV questionnaire at the school. During the pilot study I found that the learners between the ages of 7 and 9 years old often found some of the questions difficult to read and to understand and therefore the learners between the ages of 7 and 9 years completed the questionnaires separately from the learners between the ages of 10 and 13 years. This made it easier for me to read the questions and provide examples when the participants requested assistance.

I collected the data from the participating learners in the third term of 2017 after the completion of the pilot study. The learners consisted of bullies between the ages of 7 and 9 years old and non-bullies between the ages of 7 and 9 years old who completed the questionnaires in their homeroom classes. The identified bullies and non-bullies between the ages of 10 and 13 years old completed the questionnaires in the hall of the school. The principal arranged for the questionnaires to be completed during the register period which is the period before first break. This means that the learners had enough time to complete the questionnaire as they could continue during break time. I was assisted by the school support-based teacher. The principal ensured that the learners completed the questionnaires in a peaceful and disciplined manner.

To discuss the date for the completion of the questionnaires, the parents of the identified learners were invited to attend the parents meeting. During the meeting, I explained confidentiality and ensured the parents that it would always be maintained. This means that the identity of the school, parents and learners would not be exposed and only I had access to the results. As the parents agreed to complete the questionnaires on the Saturday morning that was scheduled for the parents meeting, they all met in the school hall and completed the questionnaires. The session started at 8:00 am and ended at 10:00 am. Some of the parents, who were invited during the week to discuss the behaviour of their children, completed the questionnaires in the principal's office or in my classroom.

5.7.3 Phase 2 data collection procedure

In Phase 2 of the study, the emotional intelligence skills enhancement intervention programme was implemented. All assessments and group sessions were conducted at primary school B which is an English medium primary school in Benoni, Gauteng in South Africa. After the completion of the pilot study and Phase 1 of the study, the implementation of the intervention programme started in the fourth term of 2017.

The measuring instruments that were used for Phase 2 included the teacher evaluation form and the BarOn EQ-i:YV. Before the implementation of the programme, each home room teacher of the identified bullies and non-bullies received a teacher evaluation form. On this form the teachers had to rate the learners on the number of bullying behaviour and positive behaviour displayed by them during the week.

The teacher evaluation form was handed out again to each home room teacher after the completion of the programme where they were requested to rate the participants again which

formed part of the programme evaluation to determine the success of the programme on decreasing the bullying behaviour displayed by the identified bully.

The intervention programme, which was developed to determine whether the enhancement of the emotional intelligence levels of a learner who was identified as a bully can lead to the prevention of bullying taking place in the primary school context, was implemented in school B.

According to researchers, theorists and psychologists such as Schneider Corey, Corey, and Corey (2003), Sadock and Sadock (2003), Stewart, Usher, and Allenby (2009), the ideal size for a group therapy or group session should not exceed 16 participants. The experimental group was again divided into two groups. The first group consisted of 8 (n=8) bullying participants and 8 (n=8) non-bullying participants between the ages of 7 and 9 years. The second group consisted of 7 (n=7) bullying participants and 7 (n=7) non-bullying participants between the ages of 10 and 13 years old. Parents of the participants between the ages of 7 and 9 years requested for the intervention programme to be implemented during school hours as most of the participants made use of public transport after school. The group which consisted of the participants between the ages of 10 and 13 years old were more flexible and were able to attend the programme after school hours.

The participants between the ages of 7 and 9 years old participated in the intervention sessions on a Monday, Wednesday and Friday during the first break which lasted from 10 o'clock until quarter to eleven. The older participants between the ages of 10 and 13 years attended the intervention sessions on a Friday afternoon from 2 o'clock until 4 o'clock. All the sessions took place in my classroom. Only the experimental group was exposed to the competence skills-based programme.

The intervention programme developed for the purpose of this study focused on the enhancement of the participant's emotional intelligence skills. I designed an activity book for the learners between the ages of 7 and 9 years and for the learners between the ages of 10 and 13 years. The activities included the same 12 themes which were then presented over a 12-week period. The activities designed for the younger participants focused on enhancing the same skill as the ones included in the book of the older participants, it was often just shorter or planned to be explained in a simplified manner.

At the end of each activity the participants had to complete a self-evaluation questionnaire which measured their level of understanding of the topic that was discussed and the skill I

aimed at enhancing during the specific lesson as well as the level of activity enjoyment. After each session the participants were requested to complete the questions which were marked as part of the programme evaluation at the end of the programme.

After the completion of the intervention programme, the BarOn EQ-i:YV and the teacher evaluation form was re-administered to all the learners included in the experimental and the control group.

5.8 DATA ANALYSIS

5.8.1 Pilot study

Descriptive statistics were employed to describe the characteristics of the sample which included the learners and their parents. Cronbach's alpha coefficient is used to measure the internal reliability of an instrument. Cronbach's alpha is based on the inter-item correlations. The reliability coefficients for the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire were calculated by means of the Cronbach alpha.

5.8.2 Phase 1

Descriptive statistics were employed to describe the characteristics of the sample which included the learners and their parents. Descriptive statistics were also provided on the scales of the BarOn EQ-i:YV, Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire, PCRI and the PSDQ. In the case of EQ descriptive statistics were also provided for the total score. The bullies and non-bullies were compared on the BarOn EQ-i:YV by means of independent samples t-tests. The parents of the bullies and the non-bullies were compared on the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire and the PCRI by means of independent samples t-tests as well. A chi-square analysis was used to determine if a relationship exists between the dominating parenting style as indicated on the PSQ and bullying behaviour. All analyses were done for mothers and fathers separately.

5.8.3 Phase 2

A mixed multivariate analysis (GLM) was used to explore the interaction between pre- and post-test scores and the experimental and control group for the emotional intelligence scores and the behavioural ratings by the teachers respectively. Only the results for the bullies were analysed. As explained, the inclusion of the non-bullies in the phase was due to ethical

concerns. The pre- and post-test scores were the within-subject factors, while the experimental and control group were the between-subject variables.

5.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In planning and executing this study, attention was given to ethics and the importance of adherence to it. The research was conducted by a suitably qualified person (counselling psychologist) and was supervised by a scientifically qualified person.

Before conducting the study, ethical clearance was obtained from the University of South Africa's Ethics committee and the GDE (see Appendix 15). Following the approval of the proposed research project, I applied for permission to be granted by the GDE to conduct the research at the selected schools. After permission was granted from the GDE, I approached the principals and the SGB and handed out information letters and consent forms to be signed by the principals. I provided verbal and written explanation of the purpose, aims and objectives of the study.

According to the APA (1992) (as cited in Bernard & Whitley, 2001), psychologists are responsible for the ethical conduct of research conducted by them. The ultimate responsibility for the ethical treatment of research participants lies with the person in charge of the research project. The APA states that the researcher is not only responsible for his or her own actions, but also for the actions of those who conduct research for them (Bernard & Whitley, 2001).

The work that a psychologist performs within the research study as well as the research that is planned and then conducted must be based on established scientific knowledge of psychology as a discipline. I ensured that all the activities and the topics that were included in the intervention programme were based on past scientific research.

In the Health Professions Act, 56 of 1974, Annexure 12, various ethical considerations and guidelines were included for a researcher to follow during the research process. The term ethics refers to the rules set out to be followed by a researcher to ensure that the safety of the participants throughout the research process. In line with the requirements set out by the Health Professions Act as well as the Nuremberg's Code (as cited by McIntyre, 2005), I took the following ethical rules into consideration during the research process: 1) confidentiality, 2) voluntary participation, 3) informed consent, 4) no unfair discrimination, 5) no harm to participants, 6) deception and (7) provision for debriefing and counselling.

5.9.1 Confidentiality

In accordance with Babbie and Mouton (2007) confidentiality allows the researcher to identify a certain participant's responses but essentially promises not to do so publicly. As the participants were requested to write their names and ages on the questionnaires, the researcher could not ensure anonymity. However, the researcher assured the participants that she was the only one who had access to their results and any information they provided. The researcher further assured the participants that she would only divulge information they allowed her to (Babbie & Mouton, 2007; Coyne, et al., 2006).

The researcher included a confidentiality form which the participants had to sign before the implementation of the intervention group. However, the researcher could not prevent the participants from talking about the sessions and to divulge information about their peers and the content of the sessions even though they were requested not to do so. The researcher therefore had to inform the participants that confidentiality could not be maintained at all times.

5.9.2 Voluntary participation

Babbie and Mouton (2001) suggested that social research although not limited to, involves in-depth insight into the personal lives of the sample group it is studying. Moreover, such research requires participants to share personal information. Such information may be unknown to their friends, family, parents or other social groups they belong to. Additionally, the participants are then required to share this information with a researcher that they may have never met before. Participants were asked to complete a form of consent as a prerequisite to the data collection process and the implementation of the programme, indicating their participation was voluntary and of their own will. Voluntary participation in research is designed to protect the participant's autonomy by giving them the choice of whether they want to participate in the research study. This freedom of choice option has two aspects namely, the freedom to decide about participation free from any coercion or excessive inducement and the freedom to withdraw from the study without penalty (Bernard & Whitley, 2001). In this study, I ensured that the participants were all informed about voluntary participation and written informed consent was obtained in accordance with the basic ethical rules of social research (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). The ethical principles applied to the pilot study as well as Phase 1 and Phase 2.

Participation in this study was voluntary and written consent was obtained (See Appendix 4) in accordance with the basic ethical rules of social research.

5.9.3 Informed consent

Permission to enlist children as research participants was obtained from the Gauteng Department of Education Ethics Committee. After I received my clearance certificate, the various schools were approached. The principals and other stakeholders such as the SGB, educators, parents and children were approached.

According to the Health Professions Act 1974 (Act No. 56 of 1974) (as cited in Government Gazette, 2017) a psychologist who conducts research in any form of communication will obtain written informed consent from the client concerned using language that is reasonable and understandable to the client. Informed consent requires that a client or a person who is participating in the research has the capacity to consent. Therefore, before I started with the research process, all the participants completed and signed the informed consent forms which included a written information form which described the purpose of the study and the role the participants will play in the research process.

The participants based their voluntary participation on a full understanding of the research aim and intervention (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). I provided a verbal and written explanation of the study to the children prior to testing. All participants signed an informed consent form with a written explanation of the purpose and aims of the study. Parental consent was provided by the parents of the primary school learners who were involved in the study. The consent form was signed by parents or guardians and the learners who indicated that they wanted to participate in the study. The participants were informed that they could withdraw their informed consent at any time during the research process.

5.9.4 No unfair discrimination or bias

I discussed unfair bias and discrimination with the participants and ensured that as the researcher I also did not show any bias or unfairly discriminated against any of the participants throughout the research process. Due to the sensitive nature of working with the often-stereotyped bullying community, all participants were treated equally throughout the research process and during the implementation of the intervention programme. I informed the participants that they were at liberty to withdraw from the research or stop with the completion of the psychometric assessments at any point they deemed this necessary or appropriate without incurring any negative consequences. During the completion of the psychometric tests, and throughout the research process, if I found that continuation of the process may result in mental

anguish to the participants, I was prepared to terminate the research process (Babbie & Mouton, 2001).

5.9.5 No harm to participants

Although commonly overlooked in research, participants can be harmed by the analysis and discussion of data. Participants who attain access to the published material may be able to identify themselves characterised though not identified by name. Although it is not certain, the researcher is encouraged to consider these factors when formulating the analysis and discussion (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). Furthermore, to ensure the welfare of the participant at all time, the researcher should be prepared should any emergency or crisis arise from the research process. In this research study, I included steps to be followed in case any participant showed signs of anxiety (see Appendix 13). It was also important for me to know the steps I had to follow should any of the participants disclose sensitive information. To ensure that no participant would be harmed by the research process, I looked out for any signs of distress or discomfort expressed by the participants. Should any of the participants show any sign of distress or discomfort, I was prepared to give them the option of withdrawing from the research study.

While completing the questionnaire, the respondents were at liberty to stop at any point they deemed this necessary or appropriate without incurring any negative consequences. While completing the questionnaires, I was prepared to terminate the research at any stage if there was probable cause to believe that continuation was likely to result in mental anguish to the participants.

The results from the study were used for the good of society and these results were unprocurable by any other methods. Further, the results justified the performance of this research study. Although this study was sensitive in nature, the risks taken during the completion of the psychometric tests did not exceed the humanitarian importance of this research. It was ensured that the research was conducted in such a way as to minimise all unnecessary mental suffering in order to comply with the fundamental ethical rule that no harm should be done to any of the participants (Babbie & Mouton, 2007).

5.9.6 Deception

According to Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (2006) in deception the researcher hides the true nature of the study from the participant. Moreover, the way a researcher identifies themselves and their research during the study is important as it will ensure the maintenance

of good ethics (Babbie & Mouton, 2007). Prior to the data collection process, the reasons for the research study and my background were clearly stated in written and verbal format to all the participants involved in the study.

5.9.7 Provision for debriefing and counselling

General debriefing was available to any of the participants but should they require more in-depth therapy or counselling; I put appropriate resources in place for any type of referrals.

Due to the potentially sensitive nature of the questions and the activities included in the intervention programme – which may have elicited memories that were distressing, access to trauma counselling was available for the participants by a counsellor and therapist that were recruited by me for the purposes of debriefing, counselling or in-depth therapy.

5.9.8 Results

I informed the participants that the results were analysed at group level and that the individual results were not generated.

5.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Bullying is a complex phenomenon and a significant problem within the school context. The severe effects of bullying on the bully, victims, secondary victims and the teachers involved in the lives of the bullies emphasise the importance of the development of an intervention programme to reduce the occurrence of bullying within the school context. Literature pointed out the important role emotional intelligence play in the development and prevention of bullying behaviour. The plan for the development of an intervention programme requires the selection of research methodologies to underpin the work of the researcher and methods that will best assist in the collection of the data needed for the design and development of the intervention programme.

The aim of this chapter was to assist the reader in gaining a better understanding of the way in which this study was conducted in terms of the research approach, the design, the methods for the collecting and analysing of the data and the rationale for the instruments that were selected and included in the study. Understanding the rationale for the methodology of the study further assisted in understanding how the methods fit in with the aim of the study and how these methods contributed to the successful design and development of the emotional intelligence skills-based intervention programme against bullying behaviour.

Researchers who include humans in their study are required to adhere to basic norms of scientific conduct during the research process. Research ethics are important as they promote the aims of the research and support the values required for collaboration between the researcher and the groups involved in the study. The ethics required for this study were also included and explained in this chapter.

The results of the study are presented and discussed in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 6

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 included a discussion on the research approach, the methods that were used, the research design, the data collection techniques and sampling. It also included a discussion on the baseline information for the development of the emotional intelligence intervention programme and concluded with a discussion on the ethical considerations.

The purpose of the study was to determine whether the occurrence of bullying in the primary school context can be decreased when the emotional intelligence skills of bullies are enhanced. This was tested through the development and implementation of an emotional intelligence skills-based intervention programme against bullying amongst children between the ages of 7 and 13 years old.

This study was divided into three phases namely, the pilot study, Phase 1 and Phase 2. In this chapter the research aim and objectives are addressed by presenting the results of the statistical analysis that were conducted in this study. The purpose of conducting these analyses was to test the formulated research hypotheses that were developed for each phase of this study. The hypotheses for each phase are outlined in Chapter 1 and Chapter 5 and will be presented in sequence.

In the next sections, the findings of the pilot study, Phase 1 and Phase 2 will be presented and conferred by means of presenting the results and discussing the hypotheses created for each stage of this study.

6.2 PILOT STUDY RESULTS

The purpose of the pilot study was to empirically determine whether any improvements and modifications had to be made to any of the methods or techniques before the methods and techniques were included in the main research project.

The reliability and validity of the published questionnaires are discussed in Chapter 5. The suitability of these questionnaires and the demographic questionnaire was determined by considering suitability in terms of language level, length of the instrument and the clarity of the instructions. Further, it was important for me to determine the reliability and suitability of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults in the South African context.

In this section the results of the pilot study are presented as they relate to answering the research questions, objectives and hypotheses developed for this phase. The sample is described in Chapter 5.

The objectives of the pilot study included:

- Determining the reliability of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire.
- Determining the suitability of the selected measuring instruments for the children and adults who participated in this study.

6.2.1 Suitability of the measuring instruments

The demographic questionnaire was designed to collect background information about the participants. It is available in English. The results showed that the adult participants understood and was able to read English as all the questions were completed. Although English was a third language for some of the participants, it appears that none of the participants experienced any difficulty as all the questions were completed.

The BarOn EQ-i:YV was designed to measure the level of emotional and social functioning of children between the ages of 7 to 18 years. The reading level for this instrument is Grade 2 or NQF level 1. It can be completed within one day as the administration time is between 25 to 30 minutes. The measure is available in English and was therefore suitable for the purpose of this study as the requirement for the inclusion of child participants in this study was the ability to read and understand English. Although there are no South African norms available, the measure has been approved by the Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA) and is available at JvR. During the completion of the assessment, it was evident that the participants were able to read English, however, some participants required some assistance with the meaning of some of the questions. I found that it helped them to understand better when I provided them with an example to explain the question.

To determine the emotional intelligence levels of the parents, the researcher included the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults. The questionnaire is only available in English and can be completed within one day as the administration time is between 15 to 25 minutes. This questionnaire has not been standardised and is only available for research purposes. It appeared that the parents did not experience any difficulty with the reading and understanding of the questions as none of the questions were omitted.

To determine the participating parents' views on parenting, I selected the PCRI. This is a parent self-report measure of parenting skill and attitudes toward parenting and towards children. The completion of the measure only takes 15 minutes and the measure is available in English. There are no South African norms available, however the inventory has been approved by the HPCSA and is available at Mindmuzik. During the completion of the assessment it appeared as if most of the parents found the inventory easy to comprehend and to complete as the results showed that none of the questions were omitted. Whenever a parent asked a question to be explained it helped when I provided them with some examples. However, there were not that many parents who asked for questions to be explained to them.

The PSQ is a 30-item questionnaire to determine the dominant parenting styles of parents. The three parenting styles include the authoritative, authoritarian and permissive parenting style. The measure is available in English and can be completed by adults between 10 to 15 minutes. Before the completion of the questionnaire I explained the three types of parenting styles. This appeared to help the parents to complete the questions without experiencing any difficulty as I did not experience that the parents struggled with the reading and understanding of the questions.

6.2.2 Reliability results of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults

Hypothesis 1

The Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults will be reliable for research purposes

This section describes the reliability of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for adults that were tested by means of Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

The reliability of each construct included in the questionnaire as it was answered by the fathers and mothers who participated in the study is discussed by means of a presentation of each of the subscales in table format with a description of the data and an interpretation of the data. The results for the fathers are presented in Table 6.1 and for the mothers in Table 6.2.

The Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults consists of 120 items which are divided into 5 scales. Each scale is divided into subscales as presented in Chapter 5. The reliability of each subscale was measured by means of Cronbach's alpha to determine the internal consistency of the measure. Cronbach's alpha values for reliability can be interpreted as follow:

Table 6.1

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient Reliability Estimates for the subscales included in the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults – Results of participating fathers (n=88)

Scale	Subscales	Items	Items left out	α	Reliability
Intrapersonal	*Subscale 1:* Emotional Awareness	7,9, 12,2335,69,81,97	None	0.72	Acceptable Reliability
	Subscale 2: Assertiveness	22,25,37,67,70,82,83,98	None	0.68	Questionable Reliability
	Subscale 3: Independence	3,19,32,41,48,74,77,86,103	Q3 and Q103	0.51	Poor Reliability
	Subscale 4: Self-Regard	5,11,24,40,71,84,99	None	0.81	Good Reliability
	Subscale 5: Self-Actualisation	6,21, 34,3651,7385,100	None	0.66	Questionable Reliability
Interpersonal	*Subscale 6:* Empathy	18,4450,55,61,7587,106	None	0.75	Acceptable reliability
	Subscale 7: Social Responsibility	16,30,46,5672,89,104,107	None	0.75	Acceptable reliability
	Subscale 8: Interpersonal relationship	10,31,39,52,76,88,105	Q10 and Q88	0.62	Questionable Reliability
Stress management	*Subscale 9:* Stress tolerance	4,20,33,49,63,93,112,113	None	0.78	Acceptable reliability
	Subscale 10: Impulse control	5, 11,13,27,42,58,64,94,114	Q27 and Q58	0.38	Unacceptable reliability
Adaptability	*Subscale 11:* Reality testing	8,38,53,60,68,78,91,110	None	0.64	Questionable Reliability
	Subscale 12: Flexibility	14,28,43,59,62,79,92,111	None	0.69	Questionable Reliability
	Subscale 13: Problem solving	1,15,29,4557,90'108,109	None	0.61	Questionable Reliability
General mood	*Subscale 14:* Optimism	26,5466,80'96,118,119,120	None	0.72	Acceptable reliability
	Subscale 15: Happiness	2,17,4765,95,101,102,116,117	None	0.79	Acceptable reliability

Note. Cronbach alpha values after items were omitted

- Cronbach's alpha equal to or above 0.9 indicates an excellent reliability
- Cronbach's alpha 0.9 to equal to or above 0.8 indicates good reliability
- Cronbach's alpha between 0.8 to equal to or above 0.7 indicates acceptable reliability

- Cronbach's alpha 0.7 to equal to or above 0.6 indicates questionable reliability
- Cronbach's alpha 0.6 to equal to or above 0.5 indicates poor reliability
- Cronbach's alpha below 0.5 indicates unacceptable reliability (Institute for Digital Research & Education, n.d.; Nuanally, 1978; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

The purpose of the assessment should, however, be considered (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2018) with a value of 0.65 or higher being regarded as acceptable when working at a group level.

Table 6.2

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient Reliability Estimates for the subscales included in the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults – Results of participating mothers (n=89)

Scale	Subscales	Items	Items left out	α	Reliability
Intra-personal	*Subscale 1:* Emotional Self-Awareness	7,9,12,23,35,69,81,97	None	0.66	Questionable Reliability
	Subscale 2: Assertiveness	22,25,37,67,70,82,83,98	None	0.70	Questionable Reliability
	Subscale 3: Independence	3,19,32,41,48,74,77,86,103	Q3 and Q103	0.33	Unacceptable Reliability
	Subscale 4: Self-Regard	5,11,24,40,71,84,99	None	0.85	Good Reliability
	Subscale 5: Self-actualisation	6,21,34,36,51,73,85,100	None	0.64	Questionable Reliability
Inter-personal	*Subscale 6:* Empathy	18,44,50,55,61,75,87,106	None	0.79	Acceptable Reliability
	Subscale 7: Social responsibility	16,30,46,56,72,89,104,107	None	0.81	Good Reliability
	Subscale 8: Interpersonal relationship	10,31,39,52,76,88,105		0.64	Questionable Reliability
Stress manage-ment	*Subscale 9:* Stress tolerance	4,20,33,49,63,93,112,113	None	0.69	Questionable Reliability
	Subscale 10: Impulse control	13,27,42,58,64,94,114,115	Q27 and Q58	0.49	Unacceptable reliability
Adapt-ability	*Subscale 11:* Reality testing	8,38,53,60,68,78,91,110		0.49	Unacceptable Reliability
	Subscale 12: Flexibility	14,28,43,59,62,79,92,111	None	0.57	Poor Reliability
	Subscale 13: Problem solving	1,15,29,45,57,90,108,109	None	0.59	Poor Reliability
General Mood	*Subscale 14:* Optimism	26,54,66,80,96,118,119,120	None	0.68	Questionable Reliability
	Subscale 15: Happiness	2,17,47,65,95,101,102,116,117	None	0.61	Questionable Reliability

Note. Cronbach's alpha values after items were omitted.

The estimates of internal consistency as measured by Cronbach's alpha showed that the reliability of the subscales Emotional Self-awareness, Assertiveness, Self-regard, Self-actualisation, Empathy, Social responsibility, Interpersonal relationships, Stress tolerance, Reality testing, Flexibility, Problem solving, Optimism and Happiness ranged between 0.61 and 0.81. The reliability for Independence and Impulse control were 0.51 and 0.38 respectively which indicates poor to unacceptable reliability.

The estimates of internal consistency as measured by Cronbach's alpha showed that the reliability of the subscales Emotional Self-awareness, Assertiveness, Self-regard, Self-actualisation, Empathy, Social responsibility, Interpersonal relationships, Stress tolerance, Flexibility, Problem solving, Optimism and Happiness ranged between 0.57 and 0.85.

The estimates of the internal consistency show that the reliability for the subscales Independence, Impulse control and Reality testing were 0.33, 0.49 and 0.49 respectively which indicated unacceptable reliability.

For the purpose of this research, the total scale scores (i.e. combinations of subscales) and total EQ were used implying higher reliability values than for the individual subscales (the principle of a longer test usually being more reliable than a shorter test). No decisions about individuals were furthermore based on the test results as all analyses were done at a group level. Given these considerations, it was decided to accept the results as adequate for research purposes. Further feasibility studies (including reliability and validity analyses) would, however, be required for a broader use of the instrument.

6.3 PHASE 1 RESULTS

The objectives of Phase 1 included, 1) determining the emotional intelligence levels of identified bullies by means of the BarOn EQ-i:YV and their parents by means of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults and comparing them with non-bullies and their parents, 2) determining the relationship between parent and child of the identified bullies and their parents by means of the PCRI and comparing them with non-bullies and their parents and, 3) determining the parenting style of the bullies' parents by means of the PSQ and comparing it to the parenting styles of the non-bullies' parents.

Following is a presentation and discussion of the demographics of the sample that was included in Phase 1 of the study. Thereafter the results to test the hypotheses that were developed for Phase 1 of the study are presented and discussed.

6.3.1 Demographic presentation of the sample included in Phase 1 of the study

The total number of participants included in Phase 1 of the study is summarised in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3

Total number of participants included in Phase 1 of this study

Participant	N	Male	%	Female	%
Bullies	56	40	71%	16	29%
Parents of bullies	91	36	40%	55	60%
Non-bullies	56	24	43%	32	57%
Parents of non-bullies	98	42	43%	56	57%

The results show that a total of 301 participants were included in the study. From the 301 participants, 56 of the children were bullies, 56 children were non-bullies, 91 of the participating adults were parents of the bullies and 98 of the participating adults were parents of the non-bullies. A markedly greater percentage (71%) of the children in the bully group was male and markedly greater percentages (60% and 57%) of the participating adults were female.

For the distribution of the parent sample, the results show that 91 of the parents of the bullies participated in the study and 98 of the parents of the non-bullies participated. It is clear that more parents of the bullies returned their signed consent forms and were included in the study.

The age and language distribution of the participating children are presented in Tables 6.4 and 6.5.

Table 6.4

Sample distribution of bullies (n=56) and non-bullies (n=56) by age

Age	Bullies	Non-bullies	Total
7	10 (18%)	10 (18%)	20 (18%)
8	10 (18%)	10 (18%)	20 (18%)
9	10 (18%)	10 (18%)	20 (18%)
10	5 (9%)	5 (9%)	10 (9%)
11	6 (10%)	6 (10%)	12 (10%)
12	7 (13%)	7 (13%)	14 (13%)
13	8 (14%)	8 (14%)	16 (14%)

Table 6.5

Sample distribution of bullies (n=56) and non-bullies (n=56) by language

Language of tuition	Bullies	Non-bullies	Total
English	56 (100%)	56 (100%)	112 (100%)

The results show that a total number of 112 children were included in the study. The age range was 7 to 13 with a minimum age of 7 and a maximum age of 13 with the mean of $\bar{x}$ = 9.71 and the standard deviation of σ = 2.086 across the sample.

The age distribution was the same for the bullies and non-bullies and a similar number of children were included in the age groups 7 to 9 years and 10 to 13 years.

All the participants met the inclusion criteria for the ability of reading and understanding English.

The next section was based on questions to gain background information about the participating parents of the bullies and the non-bullies. The variables included in the questionnaire were age, gender, ethnicity, marital status, place of birth, highest level of education and employment status presented in Tables 6.6 to 6.11. The variable, gender of the parents was presented and discussed in Table 6.3.

Table 6.6

Distribution of the fathers of the bullies (n=36), mothers of the bullies (n=55), fathers of the non-bullies (n=42) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56) by age

Participant	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Fathers of bullies	36	26	47	35.57	4.711
Mothers of bullies	55	23	45	33.84	4.400
Fathers of non-bullies	42	28	45	36.94	4.410
Mothers of non-bullies	56	25	43	33.83	4.236

The age distribution for the fathers of the bullies shows a minimum age of 26 and a maximum age of 47. The mean age was $\bar{x}$ = 35.57 and the standard deviation was σ = 4.711. In the case of the fathers of the non-bullies, the minimum age was 28 and the maximum age was 45 with a mean of $\bar{x}$ = 36.94 and the standard deviation of σ = 4.410 across the sample. The results for the mothers show that the mothers of the bullies had a minimum age of 23 and

a maximum age of 45 with a mean of $\bar{x}$ = 33.84 and the standard deviation of σ = 4.400 whereas the results for the mothers of the non-bullies showed a a minimum age of 25 and a maximum age of 43 with a mean of $\bar{x}$ = 33.83 and the standard deviation of σ = 4.236.

Table 6.7

Distribution of the fathers of the bullies (n=36), mothers of the bullies (n=55), fathers of the non-bullies (n=42) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56) by place of birth

Participant	N	Min	Max
Fathers of bullies	36	33 (92%)	3 (8%)
Mothers of bullies	55	47 (85%)	8 (15%)
Fathers of non-bullies	42	40 (95%)	2 (5%)
Mothers of non-bullies	56	54 (96%)	2 (4%)

The results for the distribution of the parents by place of birth show that 87.9% of the parents of the bullies indicated their place of birth as urban and 95.9% of the parents of the non-bullies indicated their place of birth as urban. It is clear that the majority of the parents indicated their place of birth as urban.

Table 6.8

Distribution of the fathers of the bullies (n=36), mothers of the bullies (n=55), fathers of the non-bullies (n=42) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56) by ethnicity

Participant	N	Black	Coloured	Indian	White
Fathers of bullies	36	34 (94%)	0	1 (3%)	1 (3%)
Mothers of bullies	55	48 (87%)	5 (9%)	1 (2%)	1 (2%)
Fathers of non-bullies	42	39 (93%)	2 (5%)	0	1 (2%)
Mothers of non-bullies	56	52 (93%)	4 (7%)	0	0

The results show that 94% of the fathers of the bullies were Black, 87% of the mothers of the bullies were Black, 93% of the fathers of the non-bullies were Black and 93% of the mothers of the non-bullies were Black. It is clear that the majority of the parents included in the study were Black.

Table 6.9

Distribution of the fathers of the bullies (n=36), mothers of the bullies (n=55), fathers of the non-bullies (n=42) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56) by marital status

Participant	N	Married	Divorced	Single	Widowed
Fathers of bullies	36	26 (72%)	9 (25%)	0	1 (3%)
Mothers of bullies	55	26 (47%)	16 (29%)	13 (24%)	0
Fathers of non-bullies	42	36 (86%)	5 (12%)	0	1 (2%)
Mothers of non-bullies	56	36 (64%)	9 (16%)	9 (16%)	2 (4%)

It is clear from the table that more parents of the non-bullies indicated that they are married (86% fathers and 64% mothers), but in both groups more fathers (72% fathers of the bullies and 86% of the fathers of the non-bullies) than mothers (47% mothers of the bullies and 64% mothers of the non-bullies) chose this option.

Table 6.10

Distribution of the fathers of the bullies (n=36), mothers of the bullies (n=55), fathers of the non-bullies (n=42) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56) by highest level of education

Participant	NS*	Gr1-7	Gr8-12	C	DP	D	PG
Fathers of bullies	0	1(3%)	21(58%)	9(25%)	4(11%)	1(3%)	0
Mothers of bullies	1(2%)	3(5%)	31(56%)	14(26%)	4(7%)	1(2%)	1(2%)
Fathers of non-bullies	0	0	22(52%)	12(29%)	4(10%)	1(2%)	3(7%)
Mothers of non-bullies	0	1(2%)	27(48%)	16(29%)	7(13%)	2(4%)	2(4%)

Note. *NS = No-schooling, C=Certificate, DP=Diploma, D=Degree, PG=Post graduate

The results show that the highest qualification obtained by more than half of the participating parents was the completion of Grade 8 to 12 (53% of the total sample of parents). This was followed by the completion of a certificate (27% of the total sample of participating parents).

Table 6.11

Distribution of the fathers of the bullies (n=36), mothers of the bullies (n=55), fathers of the non-bullies (n=42) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56) by employment

Participant	N	E*	SE	U
Fathers of bullies	36	26 (72%)	9 (25%)	1 (3%)
Mothers of bullies	55	40 (73%)	13 (22%)	3 (5%)
Fathers of non-bullies	42	37 (88%)	3 (7%)	2 (5%)
Mothers of non-bullies	56	46 (82%)	5 (9%)	5 (9%)

Note. *E = Employment, SE = Self-employment, U = Unemployed

Most of the participating parents indicated that they were employed (79%) or self-employed (16%). Only 6% of the parents indicated that they were unemployed.

In the following section of the demographic questionnaire the parents were required to answer questions on their perception of their child being a bully, parents involvement in bullying, parents history of being expelled from school, the number of children owning cell phones, the number of children that has access to the Internet and the parents preferred parenting style. The results are summarised in Tables 6.12 to 6.17.

Note that in the case where parents were married, only one demographic questionnaire was given and only one demographic questionnaire section per child was completed. The questions on the parents view of their child being a bully, whether the child owns a cell phone and whether the child has access to the Internet only required the parents to give one “yes” or “no” answer. There was therefore not a section for the father to state “yes” or “no” and a section for the mother to give her answer to these questions. However, the questions where the parents had to indicate whether they were involved in bullying and if they (the parents) were expelled from school required yes or no answers from both parents. There was therefore a space for the father to tick “yes” or “no” and a space for the mother to tick “yes” or “no”.

In the case where the parents were requested to indicate their dominant parenting style, the married parents indicated one dominant parenting style, but in the case where only the father or only the mother completed the demographic questionnaire, the fathers chose their dominant parenting style and the mothers indicated their dominant parenting style.

Table 6.12

Perception of parents of the bullies (n=91) and parents of the non-bullies (n=98) on their child being a bully

Participant	N	Yes	No
Parents of bullies	56	26 (46%)	30 (54%)
Parents of non-bullies	56	0	56 (100%)

The results (Table 6.12) showed a clear difference between the views of the parents of the bullies and the parents of the non-bullies. Almost half of the parents of the bullies agreed that their child is a bully whereas none of the parents of the non-bullies felt that their child was a bully.

Table 6.13

Distribution of the fathers of the bullies (n=36), mothers of the bullies (n=55), fathers of the non-bullies (n=42) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56) by their involvement in bullying

Participant	N	No	Yes
Fathers of bullies	36	25 (69%)	11 (31%)
Mothers of bullies	55	48 (87%)	7 (13%)
Fathers of non-bullies	42	33 (79%)	9 (21%)
Mothers of non-bullies	56	54 (96%)	2 (4%)

The results (Table 6.13) show that more fathers of the bullies (31%) indicated that they were involved in bullying than the fathers of the non-bullies (21%) and more mothers of the bullies indicated that they were involved in bullying (13%) than the mothers of the non-bullies (4%). However, the results show that 85% of the overall sample of parents indicated that they were not involved in bullying when they attended school.

From Table 6.14, it is clear that 17% fathers of the bullies, 5% mothers of the bullies, 5% fathers of the non-bullies and 5% mothers of the non-bullies indicated that they were expelled from school. Most of the parents indicated that they were never expelled from school (83% fathers of bullies, 95% mothers of bullies, 95% fathers of non-bullies and 95% mothers of non-bullies).

Table 6.14

Distribution of the fathers of the bullies (n=36), mothers of the bullies (n=55), fathers of the non-bullies (n=42) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56) by being expelled from school

Participant	N	No	Yes
Fathers of bullies	36	30 (83%)	6 (17%)
Mothers of bullies	55	52 (95%)	3 (5%)
Fathers of non-bullies	42	40 (95%)	2 (5%)
Mothers of non-bullies	56	53 (95%)	3 (5%)

Table 6.15

Participating parents of bullies (n=91) and parents of non-bullies (n=98) views on their child owning a cell phone

Participant	N	Yes	No
Parents of bullies	56	26 (46%)	30 (54%)
Parents of non-bullies	56	23 (41%)	33 (59%)

The results (Table 6.15) show that more than half of the parents of the bullies (54%) and the parents of the non-bullies (59%) indicated that their children did not own cell phones.

Table 6.16

Participating parents of bullies (n=91) and parents of non-bullies (n=98) views on their child having access to the Internet

Participant	N	Yes	No
Parents of bullies	56	19 (34%)	37 (66%)
Parents of non-bullies	56	23 (41%)	33 (59%)

It is clear from Table 6.16 that more than half of the parents of the bullies (66%) and the parents of the non-bullies (59%) indicated that their children did not have access to the Internet whereas only (34%) of the parents of the bullies and (41%) of the parents of the non-bullies indicated that their children had access to the Internet.

Table 6.17

Distribution of participating parents of the bullies (n=91) and parents of the non-bullies (n=98) on their dominant parenting style

Participant	N	Style	f	%
Parents of bullies	65	Authoritative	30	46
		Authoritarian	29	45
		Permissive	6	9
Parents of non-bullies	62	Authoritative	33	53
		Authoritarian	21	34
		Permissive	8	13

As shown in Table 6.17, it is clear that the parents chose the authoritative style as their dominant way of parenting (50%). This was followed by 39% of the parents choosing the authoritarian parenting style and only 11% of the parents choosing the Permissive parenting style as their dominant style.

In the next section the hypotheses that were developed for Phase 1 of the study are discussed.

6.3.2 Hypotheses developed for Phase 1 of the study

The aim of Phase 1was to determine and present the relationship between the independent variables (emotional intelligence, parent-child-relationship and parenting styles) and the dependent variable (bullying) to address the objectives and answer the hypotheses that were developed for this phase.

Hypothesis 1

Primary school bullies compared to the non-bullies will score significantly lower on the BarOn EQ-i:YV

The BarOn EQ-i:YV was administered to 112 children between the ages of 7 and 13 years. The objective of administering this instrument was to determine whether there was a difference between the levels of emotional intelligence of children who were identified as bullies compared to children who were identified as non-bullies. The results on the subscales and the total EQ are summarised in Table 6.18 for the bully and non-bully groups. Note that the standard scores for the BarOn EQ-i:YV have a mean of 100 and a standard deviation of 15.

The range and guidelines for the interpretation of the subscale scores were discussed in Chapter 5.

For the interpretation of the subscale scores the following can be used as a guideline for the interpretation of the scores (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

- 130+ = Markedly high
- 120 – 129 = Very high
- 110 – 119 = High
- 90 – 109 = Average
- 80 – 89 = Low
- 70 -79 = Very low
- Under 70 = Markedly low

An independent samples t-test is used to compare the means of two independent groups in order to determine whether there is statistical evidence that the associated population means are significantly different. An independent samples test was conducted to compare the results of the 56 bullies and the 56 non-bullies on the subscales of the BarOn EQ-i:YV Inventory (Table 6.18).

Table 6.18

Descriptive statistics for the bully group (n=56) and the non-bully group (n=56) on the scales of the BarOn EQ-i:YV

Scale	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Intrapersonal	*Bully*	56	87.45	6.475
	Non-bully	56	112.93	6.964
Interpersonal	*Bully*	56	65.32	1.266
	Non-bully	56	87.84	5.812
Stress Management	*Bully*	56	83.95	6.166
	Non-bully	56	102.70	5.546
Adaptability	*Bully*	56	74.46	9.692
	Non-bully	56	102.73	7.441
General Mood	*Bully*	56	65.00	0
	Non-bully	56	82.32	7.130
Total EQ	*Bully*	56	66.34	3.221
	Non-bully	56	106.82	6.253

Table 6.19

Independent Samples Test results on the BarOn EQ-i:YV for bullies (n=56) and non-bullies (n=56)

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Scale	F	Sig.	**t**	**df**	**Sig** 2-tailed	**Mean Difference**	**Std. Error** Differ-ence	**Lower**	**Upper**
Intra Equal variances assumed	1.538	0.218	-20.053	110	0	-25.482	1.271	-28.000	-22.964
Equal variances not assumed	1.538	0.218	-20.053	110	0	-25.482	1.271	-28.000	-22.964
Inter Equal variances assumed	86.014	0	-28.331	110	0	-22.518	0.795	-24.093	-20.943
Equal variances not assumed	86.014	0	-28.331	110	0	-22.518	0.795	-24.093	-20.943
SM Equal variances assumed	2.496	0.117	-16.919	110	0	-18.750	1.108	-20.946	-16.554
Equal variances not assumed	2.496	0.117	-16.919	110	0	-18.750	1.108	-20.946	-16.554
ADE Equal variances assumed	8.175	0.005	-17.313	110	0	-28.268	1.633	-31.504	-25.032
Equal variances not assumed	8.175	0.005	-17.313	110	0	-28.268	1.633	-31.504	-25.032
GM Equal variances assumed	106.39	0	-18.179	110	0	-17.321	0.953	-19.210	-15.433
Equal variances not assumed	106.39	0	-18.179	110	0	-17.321	0.953	-19.210	-15.433
TEQ Equal variances assumed	12.175	0.001	-43.072	110	0	-40.482	0.940	-42.354	-38.620
Equal variances not assumed	12.175	0.001	-43.072	110	0	-40.482	0.940	-42.354	-38.620

Note. *Intra=Intrapersonal, Inter=Interpersonal, SM=Stress Management, AD=Adaptability, GM=General Mood, TEQ=Total Emotional Intelligence

The results for the subscales of the BarOn EQ-i:YV for the bully group (*n*=56) and the non-bully group (*n*=56) are summarised as follow: The first scale on the BarOn EQ-i:YV is the Intrapersonal scale which explores the respondents' understanding of their own emotions and the ability to effectively express and communicate their feelings. The results show that the bully group scored lower (*M* = 87.45, *SD* = 6.475) compared to the non-bully group (*M* = 112.93, *SD* = 6.964). The difference was significant, *t*(110) = -20.053, *p* = 0.000). The non-bully group therefore can understand and effectively express and communicate their emotions (a high average score) whereas this ability seems to be underdeveloped in the case of the bully group (a low average score).

The results for the Interpersonal scale which explored the likelihood of the participants to have good interpersonal relationships show that the bully group scored significantly lower (*M* = 65.32, *SD* = 1.266) than the non-bullies (*M* = 87.84, *SD* = 5.812, *t*(110) = -28.331, *p* = 0.000). Despite the significant difference, the likelihood of satisfying interpersonal relationships (i.e. the ability to listen to, understand and appreciate the feelings of others) might be affected for

both groups (the means could be interpreted as markedly low and low for the bullies and non-bullies respectively).

The Stress Management scale explores the ability of the respondents to remain calm during stressful situations. The results show that the bullies scored significantly lower (M = 83.95, SD = 6.166) than the non-bullies (M = 102.70, SD=5.546, t(110) = -16.919, p = 0.0000). In the case of the bully group, the probability of the participants' having the ability to stay calm when faced with a difficult situation is low whereas the significantly higher mean score of 102.70 scored by the non-bully group indicates that the group has an average ability to remain calm during stressful situations.

There was also a significant difference between the scores for the bullies and the non-bullies on the Adaptability scale. The Adaptability scale explored the respondents' effective management of change. The results show that the bullies scored significantly lower (M = 74.46, SD = 9.692) than the non-bullies (M = 102.73, SD = 7.441, t(110) = -17.313, p = 0.000). The bully group has a very low probability of having the ability to manage change whereas the non-bully group with an average score of 102.73 would be reasonably flexible.

The General Mood scale explored the respondents' general outlook on life. The bullies scored significantly lower (M = 65.00, SD = 0.000) than the non-bullies (M = 82.32, SD = 7.130, t(110) = -18.179, p = 0.000). The bully group scored markedly low on the General Mood scale but the non-bully group also scored low on the scale. This raises concerns regarding the level of optimism and the general outlook on life in the case of both groups.

Finally, the results on the Total Emotional Intelligence scale which explored the respondents' ability to deal with daily demands of life showed a significant difference between the scores of the bully and non-bully groups. The bully group scored lower (M = 66.34, SD = 3.211) than the non-bully group (M = 106.82, SD = 6.253, t(110) = -43.072, p = 0.000). The non-bully group is reasonably capable of dealing with daily demands. However, the score of 66.34 of the bully group show a markedly low ability of the respondents to deal with daily demands.

The hypothesis can be accepted as the results showed that the bullies scored significantly lower on all the scales of the BarOn EQ-i:YV than the non-bullies.

In the next section, the results to test hypothesis two for Phase 1 will be presented and discussed.

Hypothesis 2

Parents of the identified bullies will score significantly lower on the scales of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire than parents of the non-bullies.

The questionnaire consists of 120 items which are distributed across 5 scales and 15 subscales. On this instrument, only the raw scores were used to compare the bully and non-bully parents as this is a self-developed questionnaire that has not been standardised. The maximum raw scores for the scales vary and comparison across scales cannot be made. The difference in group performance can be determined but the actual mean values should be interpreted with care.

The maximum potential score for each scale is summarised as follows:

- Intrapersonal Scale – Minimum score = 40 – Maximum score = 160
- Interpersonal Scale – Minimum score = 23 – Maximum score = 92
- Stress Management Scale – Minimum score = 16 – Maximum score = 64
- Adaptability Scale – Minimum score = 24 – Maximum score = 96
- General Mood Scale – Minimum score = 17 – Maximum score = 68
- Total EQ – Minimum score = 24 – Maximum score = 96

The descriptive statistics for the participating parents of the bullies (fathers n=36 and mothers n=55) and the participating parents of the non-bullies (fathers n=42 and mothers n=56) are summarised in Table 6.20. This is followed by the descriptive statistics for the fathers of the bullies (n=36) and fathers of the non-bullies (n=42) in Table 6.20 and the participating mothers of the bullies (n=55) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56) in Table 6.21.

The results revealed insignificant differences between the scores for the fathers of the bullies and fathers of the non-bullies on all the scales and the total EQ. The Intrapersonal scale explored the respondents' understanding of their own emotions and the ability to effectively express and communicate their feelings and emotions. The potential maximum score on this scale is 160. The results show that the fathers of the bullies scored similar (M = 107.32, SD = 4.435) to the fathers of the non-bullies (M = 106.71, SD=4.198, $t(77) = 0.628$, $p = 0.532$).

Table 6.20

Descriptive statistics for the participating fathers of the bullies (n=36), fathers of the non-bullies (n=42), mothers of the bullies (n=55) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56)

Group	Scale	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Fathers of bullies	Intrapersonal	36	100	114	107.32	4.435
	Interpersonal		36	87	58.27	11.681
	Stress Management		28	60	46.78	9.641
	Adaptability		40	67	54.62	7.635
	General Mood		30	56	38.68	7.364
	Total EQ		50	75	64.19	7.593
Fathers of non-bullies	Intrapersonal	42	100	114	106.71	4.198
	Interpersonal		36	99	61.19	10.868
	Stress Management		28	65	45.10	7.528
	Adaptability		40	66	54.55	9.944
	General Mood		30	57	40.33	8.201
	Total EQ		50	75	64.88	7.198
Mothers of bullies	Intrapersonal	55	100	115	108.96	3.810
	Interpersonal		40	89	61.45	13.444
	Stress Management		30	67	40.87	10.109
	Adaptability		40	66	55.87	5.302
	General Mood		29	61	40.24	9.586
	Total EQ		50	75	65.36	6.587
Mothers of non-bullies	Intrapersonal	56	100	114	109.43	3.751
	Interpersonal		43	99	62.70	13.752
	Stress Management		30	60	43.70	10.098
	Adaptability		40	67	57.02	5.934
	General Mood		30	65	43.11	9.855
	Total EQ		55	75	67.23	6.246

Table 6.21

Descriptive statistics for fathers of the bullies (n=36) and fathers of the non-bullies (n=42) on the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults

Scale	Group	N	Mean	SD
Intrapersonal	Fathers of bullies	36	107.32	4.435
	Fathers of non-bullies	42	106.71	4.198
Interpersonal	Fathers of bullies	36	58.27	11.681
	Fathers of non-bullies	42	61.19	10.868
Stress Management	Fathers of bullies	36	46.78	9.641
	Fathers of non-bullies	42	45.10	7.528
Adaptability	Fathers of bullies	36	54.62	7.635
	Fathers of non-bullies	42	54.55	9.944
General Mood	Fathers of bullies	36	38.86	7.364
	Fathers of non-bullies	42	40.33	8.201
Total EQ	Fathers of bullies	36	64.19	7.593
	Fathers of non-bullies	42	64.88	7.198

An independent samples t-test was used to compare the results of the fathers of the bullies and fathers of the non-bullies and the mothers of the bullies and mothers of the non-bullies on the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults. The results are summarised in Table 6.22 for the fathers and Table 6.23 for the mothers.

Table 6.22

Independent Samples Test results on the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults for fathers of the bullies (n=36) and fathers of the non-bullies (n=42)

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances								**95% Confidence Interval of the Difference**	
Scale	**F**	**Sig.**	**t**	**df**	**Sig** 2-tailed	**Mean Differ-ence**	**Std. Error Differ-ence**	**Lower**	**Upper**
Intra Equal variances assumed	0.004	0.948	0.628	77	0.532	0.610	0.972	-1.325	2.545
Equal variances not assumed			0.625	74.503	0.534	0.610	0.975	-1.333	2.553
Inter Equal variances assumed	1.446	0.233	-1.154	77	0.252	-2.920	2.531	-7.960	2.119
Equal variances not assumed			-1.149	74.186	0.254	-2.920	2.542	-7.984	2.144
SM Equal variances assumed	5.808	0.018	0.873	77	0.386	1.689	1.945	-2.164	5.541
Equal variances not assumed			0.859	67.867	0.393	1.689	1.965	-2.233	5.610
ADE Equal variances assumed	7.581	0.007	0.037	77	0.971	0.074	2.016	-3.939	4.087
Equal variances not assumed			0.037	75.651	0.970	0.074	1.982	-3.875	4.023
GM Equal variances assumed	0.452	0.503	-0.833	77	0.408	-1.468	1.763	-4.980	2.043
Equal variances not assumed			-0.839	76.967	0.404	-1.468	1.751	-4.956	2.019
TEQ Equal variances assumed	0.143	0.707	-0.415	77	0.679	-0.692	1.665	-4.008	2.624
Equal variances not assumed			-0.414	74.542	0.680	-0.692	1.671	-4.021	2.637

Note. *Intra=Intrapersonal, Inter=Interpersonal, SM=Stress Management, AD=Adaptability GM=General Mood, TEQ=Total Emotional Intelligence

The Interpersonal scale (see Table 6.21) explored the respondents' ability to build and maintain interpersonal relationships. The potential maximum score on this scale is 92. The results show that the fathers of the bullies scored numerically lower (M = 58.27, SD = 11.618) than the fathers of the non-bullies (M = 61.19, SD = 10.868, $t(77) = -1.154$, $p = 0.252$) but that the difference was not significant.

The analysis of the results for the Stress Management scale (see Table 6.21) which explored the participants' ability to stay calm during stressful situations, showed similar average scores for the two groups (M = 46.78, SD = 9.641, M=45.10, SD=7.528, $t(77) = 0.873$, $p = 0.386$). The potential maximum score for this scale is 64.

Table 6.23

Descriptive statistics for mothers of the bullies (n=55) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56) on the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults

Scale	Group	N	Mean	SD
Intrapersonal	Mothers of bullies	55	108.96	3.810
	Mothers of non-bullies	56	109.43	3.751
Interpersonal	Mothers of bullies	55	61.45	13.444
	Mothers of non-bullies	56	62.70	13.752
Stress Management	Mothers of bullies	55	40.87	10.109
	Mothers of non-bullies	56	43.70	10.098
Adaptability	Mothers of bullies	55	55.87	5.302
	Mothers of non-bullies	56	57.02	5.934
General Mood	Mothers of bullies	55	40.24	9.586
	Mothers of non-bullies	56	43.11	9.855
Total EQ	Mothers of bullies	55	65.36	6.587
	Mothers of non-bullies	56	67.23	6.246

Further, the results for the Adaptability scale (see Table 6.21) which measured the respondent's ability to manage change also showed no significant difference between the two groups. The maximum potential score for this scale is 96. The scores showed that the fathers of the bullies scored similar (M = 54.62, SD = 7.635) to the fathers of the non-bullies (M = 54.55, SD = 2.986, $t(77)$ = -0.037, p = 0.971). When compared to the maximum potential raw score of 100, the ability to manage change might be affected for both groups.

The results for the General Mood scale (see Table 6.21) which explored the respondent's level of optimism and general outlook on life, show that the fathers of the bullies scored numerically lower (M = 38.86, SD = 7.364) than the fathers of the non-bullies (M = 40.33, SD = 8.201, $t(77)$ = -0.833, p = 0.408). The maximum potential raw score is 68. Comparing the scores, the fathers of the non-bullies probably have a more positive outlook on life than the fathers of the bullies.

Table 6.24

Independent Samples Test results on the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults for mothers of the bullies (n=55) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56)

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Scale	**F**	**Sig.**	**t**	**Df**	**Sig 2-tailed**	**Mean Difference**	**Std. Error Difference**	**Lower**	**Upper**
Intra Equal variances assumed	0.061	0.806	-0.648	109	0.518	-0.465	0.718	-1.887	-0.957
Equal variances not assumed			0.648	108.875	0.518	-0.465	0.718	-1.887	-0.958
Inter Equal variances assumed	0.039	0.844	-0.481	109	0.631	-1.242	2.582	-6.359	-3.875
Equal variances not assumed			-0.481	108.998	0.631	-1.242	2.581	-6.358	-3.874
SM Equal variances assumed	0.079	0.779	-1.472	109	0.144	-2.824	1.918	-6.625	0.978
Equal variances not assumed			-1.472	108.959	0.144	-2.824	1.918	-6.625	0.978
ADE Equal variances assumed	0.888	0.348	-1.071	109	0.286	-1.145	1.069	-3.263	0.973
Equal variances not assumed			-1.072	108.043	0.286	-1.145	1.068	-3.262	0.971
GM Equal variances assumed	0.048	0.826	-1.555	109	0.123	-2.871	1.846	-6.529	0.787
Equal variances not assumed			-1.556	108.990	0.123	-2.871	1.845	-6.528	0.786
TEQ Equal variances assumed	0.039	0.845	-1.534	109	0.128	-1.869	1.218	-4.283	0.546
Equal variances not assumed			-1.533	108.451	0.128	-1.869	1.219	-4.284	0.547

Note. *Intra=Intrapersonal, Inter=Interpersonal, SM=Stress Management, AD=Adaptability GM=General Mood, TEQ=Total Emotional Intelligence

Finally, the analysis of the independent sample t-test for the difference between the scores of the fathers of the bullies and fathers of the non-bullies on the Total Emotional Intelligence scale showed no significant difference as the results showed that both groups of fathers had similar mean scores. The Total Emotional Intelligence scale explored the respondent's ability to deal with daily life demands. The fathers of the bullies scored somewhat lower (M = 64.19, SD, 7.593) than the fathers of the non-bullies (M = 64.88, SD = 7.198, t (77) = -0.415, p = 0.679).

The Intrapersonal scale explored the respondents' understanding of their own emotions and the ability to effectively express and communicate their feelings. The maximum potential score on this scale is 160. The results show that the mothers of the bullies (see Table 6.23) scored similarly to the mothers of the non-bullies (M = 108.96, SD = 3.810, M = 109.43, SD = 3.751, t(109) = -0.648, p = 0.518).

The Interpersonal scale explored the ability to build and maintain interpersonal relationships. The maximum potential score for this scale is 92. Again, similar scores were found (M = 61.45, SD = 13.444, M = 62.70, SD = 13.752, $t(109) = -0.481$, $p = 0.631$).

The Stress Management scale explored the ability of the respondents to stay calm during stressful situations and the maximum potential score on this scale is 64. From Table 6.23 it is clear that the mothers of the bullies scored numerically lower (M = 40.87, SD = 10.109) than the mothers of the non-bullies (M = 43.70, SD = 10.098) but that the difference was not significant ($t(109) = -1.472$, $p = 0.144$).

Similar results were found for the remaining scales and the total EQ score. The Adaptability scale explored the ability of the respondents to manage change (potential maximum score of 96). The mothers of the bullies scored numerically lower but the difference was not significant (M = 55.87, SD = 5.302, M = 57.02, SD = 5.934, $t(109) = -1.071$, $p = 0.286$).The General Mood scale explored the level of optimism and general outlook on life. The maximum potential score on this scale is 68. Again, no significant dif-ference was found (M = 40.24, SD = 9.586, M = 43.11, SD = 9.855, $t(109) = -1.555$, $p = 0.123$).

Finally, the Total Emotional Intelligence scale explored the ability of the respondents to deal with daily life demands. The maximum potential score for the Total EQ is 96. It is clear from the results shown in Table 6.23 that the mothers of the bullies scored somewhat lower (M = 65.36, SD = 6.587) than the mothers of the non-bullies (M = 67.23, SD = 6.246) but no significant difference was found ($t(109) = -1.534$, $p = 0.128$).

It is clear from the previous discussion that hypothesis two for Phase 1 cannot be accepted as the results showed that the fathers and the mothers of the bullies scored numerically lower on some of the scales on the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults but that these differences were not significant.

In the next section, hypothesis three for Phase 1 of the study will be presented and discussed.

Hypothesis 3

Parents of the identified bullies will score significantly lower on the Parent-Child Relationship Inventory (PCRI) than parents of the non-bullies.

The PCRI assessment is a well-known assessment that is globally used by professionals such as psychologists to assess the attitudes of parents toward parenting and toward their children. Raw scores are converted to T-scores, which are normalised standard scores with a

mean of 50 and a standard deviation of 10. A T-score less than 40 on a PCRI scale (more than one standard deviation below the mean of the normative sample) suggests problems in the domain the scale reflects. A T-score less than 30 (two standard deviations below the mean) indicates the possibility of serious problems. Scores that exceed 40 indicates that the respondents are satisfied with who they are as parents and are probably practising good parenting (Gerard, 2010).

The interpretation of the scores for the subscales is as follow:

High score	–	Above 39
Low score	–	30 – 39
Very low score	–	Below 30

The descriptive statistics on the PCRI scales for the participating fathers are summarised in Table 6.25 and in Table 6.27 for the participating mothers of the bullies and mothers of the non-bullies. An independent samples t-test was used to compare the results of the fathers of the bullies and fathers of the non-bullies (Table 6.26) and the mothers of the bullies and mothers of the non-bullies (Table 6.28) on the PCRI.

Table 6.25

Descriptive statistics for participating fathers of the bullies (n=36) and fathers of the non-bullies (n=42) on the Parent-Child Relationship Inventory (PCRI)

Scale	Participants	N	Mean	SD
Support	Fathers of bullies	36	40.75	8.827
	Fathers of non-bullies	42	47.43	5.509
Satisfaction	Fathers of bullies	36	33.14	7.601
	Fathers of non-bullies	42	42.38	3.882
Involvement	Fathers of bullies	36	22.58	7.991
	Fathers of non-bullies	42	28.55	5.549
Communication	Fathers of bullies	36	37.17	12.411
	Fathers of non-bullies	42	35.10	9.624
Limitation setting	Fathers of bullies	36	41.50	7.519
	Fathers of non-bullies	42	53.62	6.995
Autonomy	Fathers of bullies	36	42.50	7.020
	Fathers of non-bullies	42	46.69	10.252
Role orientation	Fathers of bullies	36	42.36	8.153
	Fathers of non-bullies	42	45.17	5.512

The first scale was the Parental Support scale which measures the respondents' view on receiving practical help and emotional support as a parent. The results show that the fathers of the bullies scored significantly lower (M = 40.75, SD = 8.827) than the fathers of the non-bullies (M = 47.43, SD = 5.509), $t(76) = -4.405$, $p = 0.000$). Despite the difference, the mean scores imply that both groups experience receiving practical help and support.

Table 6.26

Independent Samples Test results on the Parent-Child Relationship Inventory (PCRI) for fathers of the bullies (n=36) and fathers of the non-bullies (n=42)

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances					Sig			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
Scale	F	Sig.	t	Df	2-tailed	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
SUP Equal variances assumed	1.961	0.165	-4.405	76	0	-7.095	1.611	-10.303	-3.887
Equal variances not assumed			-4.264	57.920	0	-7.095	1.664	-10.426	-3.764
SAT Equal variances assumed	43.858	0	-7.136	76	0	-9.853	1.381	-12.603	-7.103
Equal variances not assumed			-6.803	49.149	0	-9.853	1.448	-12.764	-6.943
INV Equal variances assumed	7.054	0.010	-4.083	76	0	-6.270	1.536	- 9.238	-3.212
Equal variances not assumed			-3.975	61.228	0	-6.270	1.577	-9.424	-3.116
COM Equal variances assumed	4.893	0.030	0.979	76	0.331	-2.433	2.484	-2.514	7.379
Equal variances not assumed			0.961	65.900	0.340	-2.433	2.531	-2.620	7.485
LIM Equal variances assumed	0.223	0.638	-7.798		0	-12.591	1.615	-15.807	-9.375
Equal variances not assumed			-7.777	76	0	-12.591	1.619	-15.818	-9.365
AUT Equal variances assumed	18.548	0	-2.030	76	0.046	-4.107	2.023	-8.136	-0.078
Equal variances not assumed			-2.089	72.609	0.040	-4.107	1.966	-8.026	-0.188
ROL Equal variances assumed	4.034	0.048	-1.996	76	0.050	-3.083	1.545	-6.160	-0.006
Equal variances not assumed			-1.940	60.428	0.057	-3.083	1.589	-6.262	-0.095

Note. *SUP=Support, SAT=Satisfaction, INV=Involvement, COM=Communication, LIM=Limitation Setting, AUT=Autonomy, ROL= Role Orientation

The analysis of the independent sample t-test revealed a significant difference between the scores for the fathers of the bullies and the fathers of the non-bullies on the Satisfaction with parenting scale. This scale reflects the enjoyment a parent receives from parenting. The fathers of the bullies scored significantly lower (M = 32.53, SD = 7.912) than the fathers of the non-bullies (M = 42.38, SD = 3.882), $t(76) = -7.136$, $p = 0.000$). The fathers of the non-bullies indicated that they experience pleasure being a parent and they appear to be more satisfied with this role than the fathers of the non-bullies.

The Involvement scale reflects the respondents' interest in their child's activities. The results revealed that the fathers of the bullies scored significantly lower (M = 22.28, SD = 7.948) than the fathers of the non-bullies (M = 28.55, SD = 5.549, $t(76) = -4.083$, $p = 0.000$). However, both groups scored below 30 which raise a concern for both groups and their involvement in the activities of their child.

The Communication scale represents the respondents' awareness of how well they communicate with their children. Good communication between parents and their children is crucial to good parenting. In contrast to the other scales, the scores for the fathers of the bullies were higher (M = 37.53, SD= 12.295) than the scores of the fathers of the non-bullies (M = 35.10, SD = 9.624, $t(76) = -0.979$, $p = 0.331$) but the difference was not significant. Although the mean score of the fathers of the bullies is higher than the mean score of the fathers of the non-bullies, the means for both groups are worrisome and indicate that they might not be effectively communicating with their children.

The fathers of the bullies scored significantly lower (M = 41.03, SD = 7.241) than the fathers of the non-bullies (M = 53.62, SD = 6.995, $t(76) = -7.798$, $p = 0.000$) on the Limit Setting scale. This scale measured the effectiveness and character of the respondents' disciplining techniques. Despite the lower mean score for the fathers of the bullies, both groups seem able to set limits and their children will know what is required of them.

Moreover, the analysis of the independent sample t-test for the difference between the scores for the fathers of the bullies and the fathers of the non-bullies on the Autonomy scale showed that the scores of the fathers of the bullies were lower (M = 42.58, SD = 7.008) than the scores of the fathers of the non-bullies (M = 46.69, SD = 10.252, $t(76) = -2.030$, $p = 0.046$). The difference was significant at the 5% level. The Autonomy scale measured the respondents' willingness to promote their child's independence. It is clear from the results that the fathers in both groups are probably able to promote their child's independence. These results are positive as greater autonomy for children is associated with better school performance.

Finally, results show that the fathers of the bullies scored lower on the Role orientation scale (M = 42.08, SD = 8.055) than the fathers of the non-bullies (M = 45.17, SD = 5.512). The difference was not at the 5% level, $t(76) = 1.996$, $p = 0.050$). The Role Orientation scale measured the respondents' attitudes towards the sharing of parental responsibilities and their expectations based on gender (e.g. believing that it is the role of the mother to do housekeeping and child-rearing). Low scores (below 40) indicate that the respondent might have a

"traditional" attitude towards gender roles. Although the fathers of the bullies on average scored lower than the fathers of the non-bullies, the mean scores imply that the fathers in both groups have a positive attitude towards the sharing of parental responsibilities.

It is clear from the results that, with the exception of Communication, the fathers of the bullies scored lower on the scales of the PCRI. With the exception of Communication and Role Orientation all differences were significant. The researcher hypothesised that the fathers of the bullies would score lower on the scales of the PCRI than the fathers of the non-bullies. Partial support was found for the hypothesis. However, the fathers of the bullies scored high on four of the seven scales and it can therefore not be concluded that they have a poor parent child-relationship. The results only show that their relationship with their child may not be as strong as the relationship between the fathers of the non-bullies and their children.

Table 6.27

Descriptive statistics for participating mothers of the bullies (n=55) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56) on the Parent-Child Relationship Inventory (PCRI)

Scale	Participants	N	Mean	SD
Support	Mothers of bullies	55	36.42	7.932
	Mothers of non-bullies	56	50.66	5.185
Satisfaction	Mothers of bullies	55	33.51	5.984
	Mothers of non-bullies	56	40.57	3.760
Involvement	Mothers of bullies	55	28.84	4.252
	Mothers of non-bullies	56	25.43	3.479
Communication	Mothers of bullies	55	28.98	7.004
	Mothers of non-bullies	56	35.13	8.393
Limitation setting	Mothers of bullies	55	44.67	6.589
	Mothers of non-bullies	56	56.50	9.556
Autonomy	Mothers of bullies	55	43.55	5.906
	Mothers of non-bullies	56	43.98	6.632
Role orientation	Mothers of bullies	55	39.96	8.483
	Mothers of non-bullies	56	42.39	7.940

The results revealed a significant difference between the scores for the mothers of the bullies and mothers of the non-bullies on the Parental Support scale. The Parental Support scale measures a parent's experience of receiving help and emotional support. From Table 6.28 it is clear that the mothers of the bullies scored significantly lower (M = 36.42, SD = 7.932) compared to the mean score of the mothers of the non-bullies (M = 50.66, SD = 5.185, t(109) = -11.217, p = 0.000). The higher score for the mothers of the non-bullies (50.66) show that they may be experiencing more emotional support in comparison to the mothers of the bullies.

Table 6.28

Independent Samples Test results on the Parent-Child Relationship Inventory for mothers of the bullies (n=55) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56)

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances								**95% Confidence Interval of the Difference**	
Scale	**F**	**Sig.**	**t**	**df**	**Sig** 2-tailed	**Mean Differ-ence**	**Std. Error Differ-ence**	**Lower**	**Upper**
SUP Equal variances assumed	6.058	0.015	-11.217	109	0	-14.243	1.270	-16.759	-11.726
Equal variances not assumed			-11.176	92.789	0	-14.243	1.274	-16.773	-11.712
SAT Equal variances assumed	20.027	0	-7.459	109	0	-7.062	0.947	-8.939	-5.186
Equal variances not assumed			-7.430	90.624	0	-7.062	0.951	-8.951	-5.174
INV Equal variances assumed	20.431	0	18.194	109	0	-21.408	1.177	-19.076	-23.740
Equal variances not assumed			18.081	73.097	0	-21.408	1.184	-19.048	-23.767
COM Equal variances assumed	1.797	0.183	-4.183	109	0	-6.143	1.469	-9.054	-3.232
Equal variances not assumed			-4.190	106.244	0	-6.143	1.466	-9.050	-3.236
LIM Equal variances assumed	10.865	0.001	-7.579	109	0	-11.827	1.561	-14.920	-8.734
Equal variances not assumed			-7.603	97.795	0	-11.827	1.556	-14.914	-8.740
AUT Equal variances assumed	0.670	0	-0.366	109	0.715	-0.437	1.193	-2.801	-1.927
Equal variances not assumed			-0.367	107.977	0.715	-4.437	1.191	-2.798	-1.925
ROL Equal variances assumed	0.285	0.595	-1.558	109	0.122	-2.429	1.559	-5.520	-0.661
Equal variances not assumed			-1.557	108.233	0.122	-2.429	1.560	-5.522	-0.663

Note. *SUP=Support, SAT=Satisfaction, INV=Involvement, COM=Communication, LIM=Limitation *Setting, AUT=Autonomy, ROL= Role Orientation*

The Satisfaction with Parenting scale reflects the level of enjoyment parents experience being a parent. The results show that the mothers of the bullies scored significantly lower (M = 33.51, SD = 5.984) in comparison to the mean score for the mothers of the non-bullies (M =

40.57, *SD* = 3.760, *t*(109) = -7.459, *p* = 0.000). A higher mean score may indicate more satisfaction and enjoyment being a parent.

The analysis of the scores for the Involvement scale also show a significant difference between the mean score for the mothers of the bullies and the mean score for the mothers of the non-bullies. The results on this scale which measures the parents' involvement in their child's life and activities, show that the mothers of the bullies scored significantly higher (*M* = 28.84, *SD* = 8.075) than the mothers of the non-bullies (*M* = 25.43, *SD* = 3.479, *t*(109) = 18.194, *p* = 0.000). A higher score may indicate that the parent is more involved in the activities of the child.

The analysis of the independent samples t-test for the mothers of the bullies and mothers of the non-bullies on the Communication scale showed a significant difference between the scores. The results showed that the scores for the mothers of the bullies were significantly lower (*M* = 28.98, *SD* = 7.004) than the scores of the mothers of the non-bullies (*M* = 35.13, *SD* = 8.393, *t*(109) = -4.183, *p* = 0.000). The Communication scale represents the awareness of how well parents communicate with their child in various situations. For both groups these scores raise concerns regarding the levels of communication between the mothers and their children.

Further, the table shows that the scores for the Limit Setting show a significant difference for the score of the mothers of the bullies which is significantly lower (*M* = 44.67, *SD* = 6.589) than the score of the mothers of the non-bullies (*M* = 56.50, *SD*=9.556, *t*(109) = -7.579, *p* = 0.000). The Limit Setting scale measures the effectiveness and character of the parent's discipline techniques. Although the mothers of the bullies scored lower than the mothers of the non-bullies, both scores are higher than 39 which indicate that both groups may feel that they are in control as parents and have established firm guidelines for their child. Their children probably know what is expected of them.

The scores of the mothers of the bullies (*M* = 43.55, *SD* = 5.906) corresponded to the scores of the mothers of the non-bullies (*M* = 43.98, *SD* = 6.632, *t*(109) = -0.366, *p* = 0.715) on the next scale. The Autonomy scale measures the willingness of parents to promote their child's independence.

Both groups indicated that they experience themselves as promoting their child's independence. This is important as greater autonomy is associated with better school performance.

Finally, the Role Orientation scale measures the parent's attitude towards sharing parental responsibilities. The mothers of the bullies scored lower on the scale (M = 39.96, SD = 8.483) than the mothers of the non-bullies (M = 42.39, SD=7.940, $t(109)$ = -1.558, p = 0.122) but the difference was not significant. It appears that both groups feel that the roles of parenting should be shared by both parents.

The results show that, except for Involvement, the mothers of the bullies scored lower on the scales of the PCRI than the mothers of the non-bullies. The hypothesis was partly supported with all differences (except Autonomy and Role orientation) being significant.

In the following section, hypothesis four for Phase 1 will be presented and discussed.

Hypothesis 4

Parents of the identified bullies will have a more authoritarian parenting style, whereas parents of non-bullies will be more authoritative on the PSQ

The PSQ is a psychometric measuring instrument that is globally used to measure the three parenting styles (authoritarian, authoritative and permissive) described and defined by Baumrind's (1971) model of parenting styles.

The instrument comprises 30 self-report items, 13 questions regarding the authoritative style, 13 questions regarding the authoritarian style and 4 questions regarding the permissive style. Participants complete the items rating each item using a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = Never, 6 = Always). The highest score indicates the parents preferred parenting style. The raw scores were used to determine the dominant parenting style of the participating parents.

The minimum and maximum scores are as follow:

- Authoritative – minimum score is 13 and maximum score is 78
- Authoritarian – minimum score is 13 and maximum score is 78
- Permissive – minimum score is 4 and maximum score is 24

A dominant style was identified for the fathers of the bullies and fathers of the non-bullies which is summarised in Table 6.29. To determine whether there was a significant relationship between the dominant parenting styles and group status (bully/non-bully), a chi square analysis was performed. The results are presented in Table 6.30.

In the case of the fathers of the bullies, 72.2% selected an authoritarian parenting style as their dominant style. This style suggests someone who is viewed as a disciplinarian with strict

rules which are not explained and who are not experienced as approachable and nurturing. Some of the fathers (27.8%), however, selected an authoritative style implying that they are experienced as nurturing and view communication between parent and child as important. In the case of the fathers of the non-bullies approximately half of the group (52.4%) selected an authoritative style and the remaining fathers (47.6%) selected an authoritarian style.

Table 6.29

Dominant style for participating fathers of the bullies (n=36) and fathers of the non-bullies (n=42)

Highest style score (Fathers)	**GROUP**		
	Bully	**Non-bully**	**Total**
Authoritative Count	10	22	**32**
% within Group	*27.8%*	*52.4%*	***41.0%***
Authoritarian Count	26	20	**45**
% within Group	*72.2%*	*47.6%*	***59.0%***
Total Count	**36**	**42**	**78**
% within Group	***100.0%***	***100.0%***	***100.0%***

Table 6.30

Relationship between the dominant parenting style of the fathers of the bullies (n=36) and the fathers of the non-bullies (n=42) and bullying behaviour of children

	Value	**Df**	**Asymp. Sig.** *(2-sided)*	**Exact Sig.** *(2-sided)*	**Exact Sig.** *(1-sided)*
Pearson Chi-Square	4.850[a]	1	0.028		
Continuity Correction[b]	3.886	1	0.049		
Likelihood Ratio	4.935	1	0.026		
Fisher's Exact Test				0.038	0.024
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.788	1	0.029		
N of Valid Cases	78				

Note. a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.77.

b. Computed for only 2x2 table.

The results revealed that there was a significant relationship between the parenting styles of the fathers and bullying behaviour X^2 (1, N = 78) = 4.850, p =.028 (significant at the 5% level).

The dominant parenting style that was identified for the mothers of the bullies and the mothers of the non-bullies is summarised in Table 6.31. To determine whether there was a significant relationship between the dominant parenting styles and group status (bully/non-bully), a chi square analysis was performed. The results are presented in Table 6.32.

Table 6.31

Relationship between dominant parenting style for mothers of the bullies (n=55) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56)

Highest style score (Mothers)	**GROUP**		
	Bully	**Non-bully**	**Total**
Authoritative Count	28	32	**60**
% within Group	*50.9%*	*57.1%*	***45.9%***
Authoritarian Count	27	24	**51**
% within Group	*49.1%*	*42.9%*	***45.9%***
Total Count	**55**	**56**	**111**
% within Group	***100.0%***	***100.0%***	***100.0%***

Table 6.32

Relationship between the dominant parenting style for the mothers of the bullies (n=55) and mothers of the non-bullies (n=56) and bullying behaviour of children

	Value	**Df**	**Asymp. Sig.** *(2-sided)*	**Exact Sig.** *(2-sided)*	**Exact Sig.** *(1-sided)*
Pearson Chi-Square	0.434[a]	1	0.510		
Continuity Correction[b]	0.219	1	0.639		
Likelihood Ratio	0.434	1	0.510		
Fisher's Exact Test				0.570	0.320
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.430	1	0.512		
N of Valid Cases	111				

Note. a. 0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 25.27
b. Computed for only 2x2 table.

In the case of the mothers of the bullies, the results show that approximately half of the mothers (50.9%) selected an authoritative parenting style as their dominant style. This style suggests a parent who is experienced by their child as approachable, nurturing and sets clear expectations. The rest of the mothers (49.1%) selected the authoritarian parenting style implying that they are more rule orientated, less nurturing and less flexible. In the case of the mothers of the non-bullies, it is clear that more than half of the mothers (57.1%) selected the authoritative parenting style and the remaining mothers (42.9%) selected the authoritarian parenting style.

A chi-square test was performed and a significant relationship was not found between the parenting style of the mothers and the bullying behaviour of the children X^2 (1, n = 111) = .434, p =.510. The hypothesis was thus only supported in the case of the fathers of the bullies.

In the following section the results for Phase 2 of this study will be presented and discussed. Phase 2 involved the development of the emotional intelligence skills enhancement programme as intervention against bullying which was implemented in a primary school in the Gauteng area of South Africa.

6.4 PHASE 2 RESULTS

The objectives of Phase 2 included 1) the development of the emotional intelligence anti-bullying intervention programme and, 2) the implementation and evaluation of the emotional intelligence anti-bullying programme for bullies in primary schools in the Gauteng area of South Africa.

6.4.1 Demographic presentation of the sample population included in Phase 2 of this study

The distribution of the total sample by gender is summarised in Table 6.33, followed by a presentation of the distribution of the participating children in the experimental and control group in Table 6.34.

The number of children were evenly distributed across the subgroups (n=15 per group). A markedly greater percentage (80% and 87%) of the children in the bully experimental and control groups was male and a markedly greater percentage 80% of the children in the non-bully control group was female. One of the requirements for inclusion was that only the children who returned their signed consent forms could participate in Phase 2 of the study. It is clear that more males than females who formed part of the experimental group returned their

signed consent forms and more females who formed part of the non-bully control group returned their signed consent forms.

Table 6.33

Distribution of participating children by gender (n=60)

Gender	F	%
Female	26	43.3%
Male	34	56.7%
Total	**60**	**100%**

From the sample of 60 children who participated in Phase 2 of this study, the results show a higher number of males (56.7%) than females (43.3%).

Table 6.34

Distribution in the experimental and control group by gender (n=60)

Participant	N	Male	%	Female	%
Bullies Experimental Group	15	12	80%	3	20%
Non-bullies Experimental Group	15	7	47%	8	53%
Bullies Control Group	15	13	87%	2	13%
Non-bullies Control Group	15	3	20%	12	80%

The distribution of the total sample by age is summarised in Table 6.35 followed by the age distribution in the experimental and control group in Tables 6.36 and 6.37.

Table 6.35

Distribution of participating children by age (n=60)

Age	f	*Percentage*
7	4	*6.7%*
8	28	*46.7%*
9	0	*0%*
10	4	*6.7%*
11	4	*5%*
12	16	*26.7%*
13	4	*6.7%*
Total	**60**	***100%***

Table 6.36

Distribution of bullies (n=15) and non-bullies (n=15) in the experimental group by age

Age	Bullies	Non-bullies	Total
7	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	**2 (7%)**
8	7 (46%)	7 (46%)	**14 (46%)**
9	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	**0 (0%)**
10	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	**2 (7%)**
11	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	**2 (7%)**
12	4 (26%)	4 (26%)	**8 (26%)**
13	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	**2 (7%)**
Total	**15**	**15**	**100%**

The results show that (53%) of the children were in the age group 7 to 9 years old (46%) of these children were 8 years old) and (47%) were in the age group 10 to 13 years old (27% were 12 years old at the time of the study).

Table 6.37

Distribution of bullies (n=15) and non-bullies (n=15) in the control group by age

Age	Bullies	Non-bullies	Total
7	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	**2 (7%)**
8	7 (46%)	7 (46%)	**14 (46%)**
9	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	**0 (0%)**
10	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	**2 (7%)**
11	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	**2 (7%)**
12	4 (26%)	4 (26%)	**8 (26%)**
13	1 (7%)	1 (7%)	**2 (7%)**
Total	**15**	**15**	**100%**

The results show that 53% of the children were in the age group 7 to 9 years old (47% of these children were 7 years old) and 48% of the children were in the age group 10 to 13 years old (27% of these children were 12 years old at the time of the study).

The distribution for the experimental and control group follow the same pattern with a somewhat higher percentage of children in the 7 to 9-year-old group than in the 10 to 13-year-old group. The age distribution is also similar between bully and non-bully groups.

In the following section the hypotheses that were developed for this phase will be presented and discussed.

6.4.2 Hypotheses developed for Phase 2 of the study

Hypothesis 1

Comparing the pretest and posttest results on the BarOn EQ-i: YV, the participating bullies (experimental group) will score significantly higher on the BarOn EQ-i:YV after the implementation of the intervention programme.

The objective of Phase 2 of the study was to implement and evaluate the Emotional Intelligence based Intervention programme against bullying. Before the implementation of the programme, I conducted a pre-test by means of the BarOn EQ-i:YV on all the participants included in the study. I hypothesised that before the implementation of the programme, the bullies will score relatively lower than the non-bullies on the scales of the BarOn EQ-i:YV and in terms of total EQ. This was established in Phase 1 of the study.

It was furthermore expected that the bullies in the experimental and control group will perform similarly on the BarOn EQ-i:YV during the pre-test. I further hypothesised that the scores for the bullies in the experimental group on the total EQ will be higher after the implementation and completion of the intervention programme. This will imply a significant difference between the pretest and posttest for this group as well as a significant difference between the posttest scores of the bullies in the experimental group and the control group.

In this section the difference between the scores of the bullies in the experimental group and the bullies in the control group on the pre- and posttest of the BarOn EQ-i: YV will be presented and discussed.

The descriptive statistics for the control and experimental groups on the pretest and posttest of the BarOn EQ-i:YV are summarised in Tables 6.38 and 6.39.

The results for the within and between subject's effects for the bullies in the experimental and control group are summarised in Tables 6.41 and 6.42.

Table 6.38

Descriptive statistics for the bullies in the experimental group (n=15) and the bullies in the control group (n=15) on the pretest for the BarOn EQ-i:YV

Group	Scale	N	Mean	SD
Control	Intrapersonal	15	86.20	6.361
	Interpersonal	15	62.67	2.582
	Stress Management	15	80.13	5.410
	Adaptability	15	76.13	8.551
	General Mood	15	63.00	3.162
	Total EQ	15	65.07	5.216
Experimental	Intrapersonal	15	85.60	7.863
	Interpersonal	15	66.13	2.066
	Stress Management	15	83.93	6.319
	Adaptability	15	73.40	10.322
	General Mood	15	63.00	2.535
	Total EQ	15	62.67	3.716

Table 6.39

Descriptive statistics for the bullies in the experimental group (n=15) and the bullies in the control group (n=15) on the posttest for the BarOn EQ-i:YV

Group	Scale	N	Mean	SD
Control	Intrapersonal	15	82.47	4.601
	Interpersonal	15	62.67	3.200
	Stress Management	15	74.33	6.120
	Adaptability	15	70.40	6.512
	General Mood	15	64.00	2.070
	Total EQ	15	63.07	2.604
Experimental	Intrapersonal	15	123.13	7.220
	Interpersonal	15	90.87	8.741
	Stress Management	15	101.87	8.749
	Adaptability	15	103.13	9.456
	General Mood	15	81.13	7.999
	Total EQ	15	108.53	6.906

Table 6.40

Descriptive statistics for the bullies in the experimental group (n=15) and the bullies in the control group (n=15) on the Total EQ scores for the BarOn EQ-i:YV

Test	Group	N	Mean	SD
Pretest	Control	15	65.07	5.216
	Experimental	15	62.67	3.716
	Total	**30**	**63.87**	**4.614**
Posttest	Control	15	63.07	2.604
	Experimental	15	108.53	6.906
	Total	**30**	**85.80**	**23.684**

Table 6.41

Test of Within-Subjects Effects (EQ Total)

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Parial Eta Squared
Time	Sphericity Assumed	7216.067	1	7216.067	311.870	0	0.918
	Greenhouse-Geisser	7216.067	1	7216.067	311.870	0	0.918
	Huynh-Feldt	7216.067	1	7216.067	311.870	0	0.918
	Lower-bound	7216.067	1	7216.067	311.870	0	0.918
Time *Exp _ Control	Sphericity Assumed	8592.067	1	8592.067	371.339	0	0.930
	Greenhouse-Geisser	8592.067	1	8592.067	371.339	0	0.930
	Huynh-Feldt	8592.067	1	8592.067	371.339	0	0.930
	Lower-bound	8592.067	1	8592.067	371.339	0	0.930
Error (Time)	Sphericity Assumed	647.867	28	23.138			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	647.867	28	23.138			
	Huynh-Feldt	647.867	28	23.138			
	Lower-bound	647.867	28	23.138			

Table 6.42

Test of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Parial Eta Squared
Intercept	336001.667	1	336001.667	13653.318	0	0.998
Exp _ Control	6955.267	1	6955.267	282.625	0	0.910
Error	689.067	28	24.610			

Results show that there was a significant main effect for time $F(1.28) = 311.870$, $p = 0.000$, $\eta^2 = 0.918$. There was also a main effect for the experimental vs. control group $F(1.28) = 282.625$, $p = 0.000$, $\eta^2 = .910$. More importantly though, there was a significant interaction between Time and Experimental –Control group $F(1.28) = 371.339$, $p = 0.000$, $\eta^2 = 0.930$.

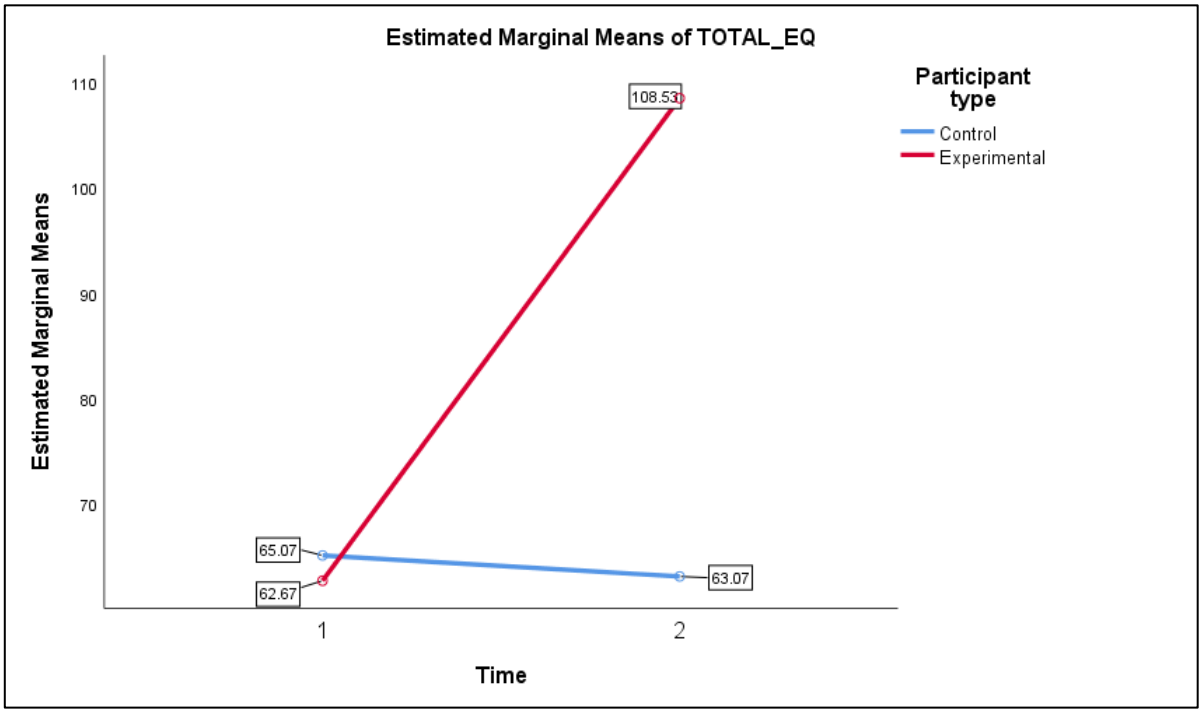

Figure 6.1. **Estimated Marginal Means of EQ for the control and experimental group on the Total EQ of the BarOn EQ-i:YV**

Inspection of the graph (Figure 6.1) and Table 6.40 reveals that the mean scores for the control and experimental group were similar in the pretest (65.07 and 63.07). For the experimental group, the scores increased from pretest (62.67) to posttest (108.53), while for

the control group, the posttest scores showed a decrease in the mean score from pretest (65.07) to posttest (63.07).

To further investigate these differences, a paired samples t-test was done for the control and experimental group separately to investigate whether the change in scores from pre to posttest was significant for each group. Results are reported below in Table 6.43. A paired sample t-test could not be calculated for the control group as their pretest and posttest scores were the same.

Table 6.43

Paired Samples Statistics of the Total EQ on the pretest and posttest of the BarOn EQ-i:YV for the control group (n=14) and experimental group (n=15)

				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed
Control Pair 1	-1.133	8.169	1.492	-4.184	1.917	-0.760	29	0.453
Experimental Pair 1	-22.933	24.006	4.383	-31.897	-13.969	-5.233	29	0

Results for the experimental group show that the increase from pretest to posttest was significant $t(29) = -5.233$, $p = 0.000$. It may thus be inferred that the intervention programme succeeded in significantly increasing the emotional intelligence of bullies in the experimental group, but not in the control group.

In the following section, Hypothesis 2 for Phase 2 will be presented and discussed.

Hypothesis 2

Comparing the pretest and posttest results, the participating bullies (experimental group) will behave in a more positive manner and will receive higher positive behaviour scores on the Teacher Rating Scale after the implementation of the intervention programme.

The Teacher Rating Scale is a self-developed questionnaire which required the teachers of the participating bullies to indicate the negative and positive behaviours observed by them during the school day. At the end of the day a score out of 10 was given.

At the end of the week a score out of 50 was given to the child and at the end of 10 weeks, all the scores were calculated to give a score out of 500. Any learner who scored below 250 or below 50% displayed more negative behaviour during the 10-week evaluation.

The Teacher Rating Scale was again handed out to be completed by the teachers after the completion of the intervention programme. I wanted to determine whether there was a difference in the scores achieved before the intervention programme in terms of the behaviour of the participating bullies who formed part of the experimental group.

Descriptive statistics of the control and experimental group on the Teacher Rating Scale are summarised in Table 6.44.

Table 6.44

Descriptive statistics for participating bullies in the control group (n=14) and participating bullies in the experimental group (n=15) on the Teacher Rating Scale, pretest and postest

Test	Group	N	Mean	SD
Pretest	Control	14	32.4286%	9.27125%
	Experimental	15	30.9333%	8.72981%
	Total	**29**	**31.6552%**	**8.86516%**
Posttest	Control	14	28.1429%	8.16990%
	Experimental	15	84.8667%	6.95770%
	Total	**29**	**57.4828%**	**29.78809%**

A multivariate test for the bullies in the experimental and control group for the pre and posttest results on the Teacher Rating Scale was performed.

The results are presented in Tables 6.45 and 6.46.

Table 6.45

Test of Within-Subjects Effects (Teacher Rating Scale)

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Time	Sphericity Assumed	8924.588	1	8924.588	161.949	0	0.857
	Greenhouse-Geisser	8924.588	1	8924.588	161.949	0	0.857
	Huynh-Feldt	8924.588	1	8924.588	161.949	0	0.857
	Lower-bound	8924.588	1	8924.588	161.949	0	0.857
Time *Exp _ Control	Sphericity Assumed	12272.174	1	12272.174	222.699	0	0.892
	Greenhouse-Geisser	12272.174	1	12272.174	222.699	0	0.892
	Huynh-Feldt	12272.174	1	12272.174	222.699	0	0.892
	Lower-bound	12272.174	1	12272.174	222.699	0	0.892
Error (Time)	Sphericity Assumed	1487.895	27	55.107			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	1487.895	27	55.107			
	Huynh-Feldt	1487.895	27	55.107			
	Lower-bound	1487.895	27	55.107			

Table 6.46

Test of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Parial Eta Squared
Intercept	112628.362	1	112628.362	1356.415	0	0.980
Exp _ Control	11043.810	1	11043.810	133.004	0	0.831
Error	2241.914	27	83.034			

Results show that there was a significant main effect for time $F(1.27) = 161.949$, $p = 0.000$, $\eta^2 = 0.857$. There was also a main effect for the experimental versus control group $F(1.27) = 133.004$, $p = 0.000$, $\eta^2 = .831$. More importantly though, there was a significant interaction between Pre-posttest and Experimental Control group $F(1.27) = 222.699$, $p = 0.000$, $\eta^2 = 0.892$.

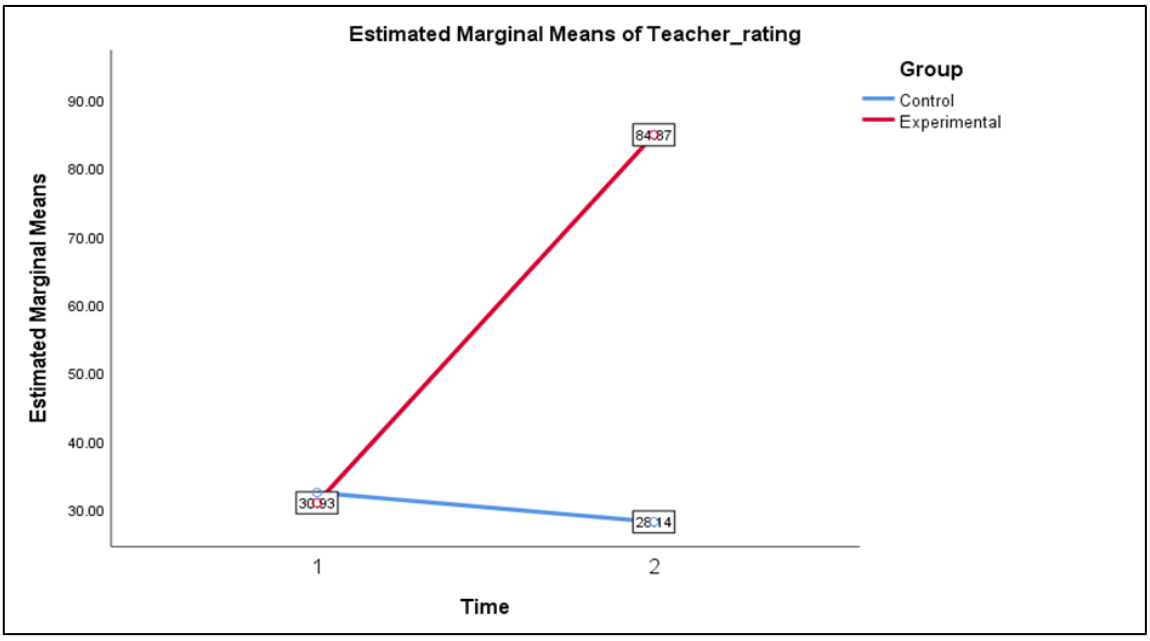

Figure 6.2. **Estimated Means of the Teacher Rating Scale for the control and experimental group**

From the graph in Figure 6.2 and Table 6.44, it is clear that the scores of the experimental group improved from pretest ($M = 30.9333\%$) to posttest ($M = 84.8667\%$).

To further investigate these differences, a paired samples t-test was done for the control and experimental group to investigate whether the change in scores from pretest to posttest was significant.

Table 6.47

Paired Samples Statistics for the control and experimental group (participating bullies and non-bullies) on the pretest and posttest of the Teacher Rating Scale

Group		Mean	N	SD
Control Pair 1	*Pre %*	59.8621%	29	31.33884%
	Post %	57.8966%	29	33.67634%
Experimental Pair 1	*Pre %*	62.2000%	30	32.67858%
	Post %	90.5667%	30	8.18191%

Table 6.48

Paired Samples Test for the control and experimental group on the Teacher Rating Scale

					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. 2-tailed
Control Pair 1	*Pre %*	1.96552%	9.66024%	1.79368	-1.70904%	5.64008%	1.096	28	0.283
	Post %								
Experimental Pair 1	*Pre %*		27.624788%	4.97476%	-38.54119%	-18.19214%	-5.702	29	0
	Post %	-28.36667%							

Results show that, for the experimental group, the difference between pretest to posttest was significant $t(29) = -5.702$, $p = 0.000$, and in the expected direction. For the control the difference between the pretest to posttest scores was not significant $t(28) = 1.096$, $p = 0.283$.

It may thus be inferred that the intervention programme succeeded in significantly increasing the teacher rating of bullies in the experimental group, but not in the control group.

6.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 6 included the presentation and discussion of the results for the Pilot study, Phase 1 and Phase 2 of the present study.

When researchers select measuring instruments for their study, they are required to ensure that the instruments are reliable, valid and suitable for the purpose they are utilised for and for the population selected to be included in the study.

A Pilot study was conducted to determine the reliability and suitability of the measuring instruments (BarOn EQ-i:YV, PCRI, PSQ and Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults) that were utilised for the purpose of this study. The results showed that the measuring instruments were reliable and suitable and were thus included in Phase 1 and Phase 2 of the study.

Various factors were found to contribute to the reason for children to engage in bullying behaviour. Some of these factors included the emotional intelligence level of children and their parents, the relationship between parents and their children and the parenting style practiced by the parents.

Phase 1 of the present study focused on determining the level of emotional intelligence of the children identified as bullies and their parents, the relationship between the parents and their children and the type of parenting style adopted by the parents. The results were measured against the hypothesis that the bullies and their parents will score low on the BarOn EQ-i:YV and the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults. The results for the bullies showed that the bullies scored significantly lower on the sub-scales of the BarOn EQ-i:YV. In this case the hypothesis was accepted.

The results for the EQ levels of the parents showed that the hypothesis could not be accepted as both the fathers and the mothers of the bullies only scored low on some of the sub-scales of the EQ measure.

In the case of the relationship between the parents and their children, the results showed only partial support for the hypotheses for results on the PCRI as both the fathers and mothers of the bullies did not score low on all of the sub scales of the PCRI.

Finally, the results for the parents on the type of parenting style adopted showed a significant relationship between the authoritarian parenting style adopted by the fathers of the bullies and the child engaging in bullying behaviour. However, this was not the case for the mothers of the bullies as more mothers indicated that they prefer an authoritative parenting style.

Phase 2 of the study involved the implementation and evaluation of the Emotional Intelligence Skills Enhancement programme as an intervention against bullying. The results showed that the bullies scored significantly higher on the posttest of the BarOn EQ-i:YV and the Teacher Rating Scale after the completion of the intervention programme. Based on the results it can thus be concluded that the intervention programme assisted in the improvement of the EQ skills of the bullies and it assisted in reducing bullying behaviour.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the results from the data that were analysed in Chapter 6 are discussed in detail and in accordance with the stated research questions, objectives and hypotheses that were formulated for this study. The findings are contextualised in terms of previous studies conducted on bullying, emotional intelligence and intervention programmes.

The aim of this study was to assess the emotional intelligence of learners between the ages of 7 and 13 who were identified as bullies in their school and then use the information to develop an Emotional Intelligence Skills Enhancement Programme to serve as the intervention programme against bullying. I hypothesised that the enhancement of a bully's emotional intelligence may lead to a decrease in bullying behaviour.

7.2 DISCUSSION OF THE PILOT STUDY RESULTS

Various authors (Bastos, Duquia, Gonzalez-Chica, & Bonamigo, 2014; Switzer, Wisniewski, Belle, Dew, & Schultz, 1999) pointed out important aspects that need to be taken into consideration when researchers set out to select the instruments they will use for their data collection. Some of these factors include the aim and purpose of the instrument, alignment, the target population, feasibility and quality.

Alignment of an instrument is viewed important as it relates directly to the utility of the information that was collected from the assessment or assessments that was done. Poor alignment may result in weak or limited information about the study. The target population for this study included learners between the ages of 7 and 13 years old and their parents. I therefore had to determine which instruments were available for children between the ages of 7 and 13 years old and which instruments were appropriate for the assessment of adults. After selecting the instruments, it had to be confirmed whether the instruments are appropriate for the participants' age, gender and setting.

Identifying the best instrument that will align with the objectives of the study is not an easy task. Some instruments are easy to access and do not require training before it can be purchased, whereas many psychological measuring or assessment instruments require training. The scoring of instruments can also not always be done by hand and must be sent in to be

computed. It is therefore important for the researcher who is bound by a strict budget to carefully select the most cost effective but also the most effective instrument of high quality. The cost and availability of an instrument will thus affect the researcher choosing to use existing instruments or having to develop a new instrument. The benefit of using an existing instrument is convenience. However, it is often difficult to purchase instruments or find free instruments that will align with the objectives of a study. As mentioned earlier, the use of some psychological instruments require training and is often very expensive. The training of a specific instrument that will align with the objective of this study may also only be presented during certain times of the year which can make it difficult for researchers especially when they are limited by a time frame during which the data for the study must be collected.

Existing instruments were suitable except for the assessment of the emotional intelligence levels of adults. The instrument mostly used by researchers in South Africa and practitioners to measure the emotional intelligence of adults is the EQ-I 2.0 which requires training and the completion of an examination before it can be purchased. Due to logistical constraints, I decided to develop a questionnaire to measure the emotional intelligence levels of adults.

In a research study it is imperative for the researcher to use only instruments of high quality to obtain useful results. The quality of an instrument is measured by the validity and reliability of the instrument. Validity refers to how well an instrument measures what it was designed to measure, and reliability refers to the consistency of an instrument to measure what it was designed to measure (Kimberlin, 2008; Mohajan, 2017).

The instruments selected for the purpose of this study included the self-developed Demographic Questionnaire to gain background information about the participants, the BarOn EQ-i:YV for the assessment of the emotional intelligence of the learners between the ages of 7 and 13 years, the PCRI and the PSQ. As indicated earlier, I developed my own Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for adults based on the Bar-On model of Emotional Intelligence.

Although the validity and reliability of the BarOn EQ-i:YV, the PCRI and the PSQ were reported as adequate and these instruments could be included in the study as they were in alignment with the research objectives, I had to determine whether these instruments were appropriate for the use in the South African context. I was also required to determine whether the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults was reliable as this instrument has not been standardised.

The first instrument administered to the parents was the Demographic Questionnaire. As the information provided by the parents on this questionnaire was only serving the purpose of collecting background information and not for research purposes, I only observed the parents while they completed the questions. During the completion process the parents did not require any assistance, therefore I concluded that the questions were clear, arranged in logical order, and because the questions were short and only required the participants to tick the appropriate box, most of the parents completed the questionnaire within 5 minutes.

As stated earlier, the reliability of the PCRI has been reported. The questionnaire is available in English. One of the inclusion requirements for this study required the participant to be competent in reading and understanding English. Before I allowed the parents to start with the completion of this instrument, I asked whether they required me to read through the questions with them. Most of the participants indicated that they felt confident to start with the completion of the questionnaire and that they would indicate when they required assistance.

During the completion of the questionnaire only a few participating parents requested me to provide an example for the question they struggled to complete. Further it appeared as if the parents found the completion of the PCRI easy as most of them completed the instrument within 15 minutes.

The PSQ is also a standardised test that is available in English. Although the questionnaire is available in English it must still be logical and clear for the participants to complete within the given time frame. Before the participants started with the completion of the PSQ, I provided an explanation of each of the three types of parenting styles namely, authoritarian, authoritative and permissive and included an example for each of the styles. As a result, I observed that the participants did not require a lot of assistance and most of the participants completed the questionnaire within 15 minutes.

The BarOn EQ-i:YV to determine the level of emotional intelligence of the learners is available in English and can be completed between 25 and 30 minutes. I observed that the participants between the ages of 10 and 13 years old required less assistance than the younger participants between the ages of 7 and 9 years old. Some of the younger participants, ages 7 and 8 years requested I read some of the questions for them. After reading the question they were able to answer the question. I made a note to remind myself that although the participants may be able to understand English, some of the words may be too difficult to read for children between the ages of 7 and 9 years old.

As stated earlier, it is important for an instrument to be reliable. Reliability of an instrument refers to the degree to which the results obtained by the instrument and procedure can be replicated (Bolarinwa, 2015). The reliability indices as indicated by the Centre for Assessment and Research range from 0 to 1.0 with higher values indicating that the instrument is more reliable. There are various aspects that may have an impact on the reliability of a questionnaire including, the correlation between items question construction, length of the questionnaire, administration errors, scoring errors, environmental factors, test-taker factors, homogeneity of the group, duration of the scale, characteristics of the items and the reliability estimation method (Bolarinwa, 2015; Kaplan & Saccuzzo, 2008; Zhu & Han, 2011).

The Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults is not a standardised assessment tool, it was therefore important for the researcher to determine whether this instrument is reliable for use in the study. Cronbach's alpha was calculated separately for the fathers and the mothers since the questionnaire was completed separately for fathers and mothers. After the completion of the questionnaire, the results for the fathers showed that the Impulse Control subscale had an unacceptable Cronbach's alpha of .38. The score remained the same after 2 questions were removed. In the case of the mothers, the reliability values for the Independence scale (.33), the Impulse Control scale (.49) and Reality Testing (0.49) could be described as unacceptably low. However, subscales scores were not used in further analyses; total scale scores and the total EQ score were used at group level and it was decided that the reliability for the combined scores will suffice for research purposes.

The overall results showed that the instruments were feasible given the aims of the study. As a result, the instruments were included in Phase 1 and Phase 2 of the study.

7.3 DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS FOR PHASE 1

Hypothesis 1

Primary school bullies compared to the non-bullies will score significantly lower on the BarOn EQ-i:YV

This study addressed some gaps in the existing literature. Previous research pointed out the importance of emotional intelligence in recognising, understanding, labelling, expressing and regulating emotions in the self and those of others (Rivers, 2014). Research indicated the important role emotional intelligence plays in the enhancement of academic success and decrease in problem behaviour which includes bullying. High levels of emotional intelligence in children is associated with the ability to manage their feelings, express negative feelings and

emotions in more socially acceptable ways, and behaving in an empathetic manner towards friends and peers.

Literature on emotional intelligence and bullying indicates that one of the reasons children may engage in bullying behaviour is their inability to effectively regulate their emotions, the inability to show empathy which then results in the inability of the child to build and maintain effective relationships (Rivers, 2014; Schokman & Stough, 2014). One can then assume that in general bullies will have a lower EQ compared to children who do not engage in bullying behaviour. The assessment of the emotional intelligence levels of children who engage in bullying behaviour can have significant implications for the development of prevention and intervention programmes.

Previous research on the development and implementation of intervention and prevention programmes to decrease the occurrence of bullying behaviour in the school context, primarily focused on whole school approaches such as the Olweus Bullying Prevention Program and the RULER programme designed to modify the quality of classroom interactions (Olweus, 1978, Rivers, 2014). These programmes were not designed to target a specific group such as the victims, bystanders or the bullies. Studies on bullying tend to focus more on empowering children to keep them safe from bullying and falling victim to bullying. It was found that there is a lack of studies which focus specifically on the bully and empowering them.

The aim of the present study was to develop a programme that focuses specifically on the child bully and empowering them to prevent them from engaging in bullying behaviour thus decreasing the occurrence of bullying behaviour in the primary school context. As stated earlier, research indicated that children bully due to a lack of emotional intelligence skills. In order to plan an intervention programme against bullying that specifically focuses on the bully child required the researcher to assess the level of emotional intelligence of children who engage in bullying behaviour to be able to design a programme to attend to their specific needs. It was hypothesised that children identified as bullies will score lower on an EQ assessment compared to children who do not engage in bullying behaviour.

To determine the EQ levels of the identified bullies in this study BarOn EQ-i:YV was used. The same instrument was used to assess the EQ levels of children identified as non-bullies. The gap in the literature on the assessment of the EQ levels of children and specifically children who engage in bullying behaviour (bullies) was addressed in this study by including children who were identified by their teachers as bullies and comparing the results of their EQ

with those of children who were identified as non-bullies. The scores of the bullies and the non-bullies were compared on each sub-scale included in the BarOn EQ-i:YV. The results supported the hypothesis as it showed that the bullies obtained markedly low to low mean scores on all the scales with a markedly low score on the total EQ. The non-bullies obtained low scores on the Interpersonal and General mood scale, average scores on the Stress Management and Adaptability scale, a high score on the Intrapersonal scale with an average total EQ. All differences between the bullies and the non-bullies were significant.

Hypothesis 2

Parents of the identified bullies will score significantly lower on the scales of the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire than parents of the non-bullies.

Previous studies and literature that focused on possible causes for children becoming bullies included the emotional intelligence levels of the parents. According to Webb (2015) being raised by parents with low emotional intelligence can result in children not learning how to be aware of their own emotions and they may not learn the importance of feelings and emotions and that it should be expressed in a socially acceptable manner. The studies conducted on the influence the emotional intelligence levels of parents may have on children engaging in bullying behaviour have been done internationally (Mitsopoulou & Giovazolias, 2013; Webb, 2015). No local studies which focused on the assessment of the emotional intelligence levels of parents in South Africa and the assessment of parents of children who engage in bullying behaviour could be found. As evident from previous research, a relationship exists between low levels of emotional intelligence of parents and children engaging in bullying behaviour. It is therefore expected that parents of bullying children will score low on a measure of emotional intelligence. Another gap identified in the literature is the assessment of emotional intelligence levels of parents of children who engage in bullying behaviour and comparing their results with parents of children who have been identified as non-bullies.

In this study I assessed the emotional intelligence of parents of children identified as bullies and parents of children identified as non-bullies and hypothesised that the parents of the bullies will score significantly lower on the subscales of the emotional intelligence questionnaire than the parents of the non-bullies. From the results I could also hypothesise whether there was a relationship between the emotional intelligence of the parents and bullying behaviour. In the present study, I viewed the emotional intelligence results separately for fathers and mothers since the questionnaire was completed separately by these two groups.

The Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults consisted of five subscales. No significant differences were found in terms of the results for the fathers of the bullies compared to the results of the fathers of the non-bullies. The mean scores of the two groups were similar on all the scales and for the total EQ. As the measure has not been standardised, the values cannot be qualitatively evaluated. Based on previous literature, one could assume that an adequate performance on the subscales would impact positively on the home environment (BarOn, 2006). The Intrapersonal scale explored the respondents understanding of their own emotions and the Stress Management scale explored the ability of the respondents to stay calm during stressful situations. Children growing up in a home environment where parents display these skills should have developed a good understanding of their own emotions and the ability to stay calm during stressful situations as literature showed that children learn these skills by observing and modelling the behaviour of their parents.

The results for the fathers of the non-bullies showed that higher scores were obtained on the Interpersonal, Adaptability and General Mood scales and a higher Total EQ compared to the slightly lower Total EQ of the fathers of the bullies. Children growing up in an environment where parents are able to build and maintain relationships, manage change and have a positive outlook on life will most likely develop and model these skills (Mirza, Redzuan, Abdulah, & Mansor, 2010; Rivers, 2014; Webb, 2015). Mirza et al., (2010) stated that fathers with high emotional intelligence are able to respond in a more positive manner towards the behaviour of their children compared to fathers with lower emotional intelligence levels. They emphasised the important role parents and especially fathers play in the social and emotional development of children. It is important that fathers should realise this and that they should also note the important role emotional intelligence skills play in their lives and the lives of their children. Mirza et al. (2010) explained that fathers with low emotional intelligence are at risk of harming their children's confidence and self-esteem as they tend to give negative reinforcement to negative behaviour and forget about their child's positive behaviour and focusing on rewarding that kind of behaviour.

Aminabadi, Pourkazemi, Babapour, and Oskouei (2012) found a positive correlation between the emotional intelligence of a mother and the behaviour of their children in a dental setting. They stated that the emotional intelligence of a mother influences the child's ability to remain calm in stressful situations. The emotional intelligence of mothers is thus effective in

the prediction of how a child may behave in certain situations and how a child may behave in general.

In the current study the researcher hypothesised that mothers of children who are bullies will have a lower emotional intelligence which may be directly related to the reason why their children are bullies. No significant differences were, however, found between the results for the mothers of the bullies and the mothers of the non-bullies. As in the case of the fathers, mean scores were similar for all subscales and the total EQ score. Hypothesis two for Phase 1 could not be accepted.

Hypothesis 3

Parents of the identified bullies will score significantly lower on the PCRI than parents of the non-bullies.

Previous studies on parent-child relationship emphasised the importance of the parent-child relationship in the facilitation of the healthy social and emotional development of a child (Bjereld & Petzold, 2017; Fanti & Georgiou, 2013; Jimerson, Swearer, & Espelage, 2009, 2010). Parents play an important role in the development and prediction of their behaviour in certain situations. This statement is supported by the different theories related to bullying behaviour that were discussed in Chapter 2.

It is evident from the Attachment Theory of Bowlby (1969) that the bond between infants and their primary caregivers is viewed as the first and most important bond as this will guide and predict the type of relationships infants will build with others later and throughout their lives. The Attachment Theory did not only focus on the bond between infants and their primary caregivers but also focused on the type of relationships a child will build throughout their lifespan. The securely attached infants were found to be better able to build and maintain social relationships. Nickerson, Mele, and Osborne-Oliver (in Jimerson, Swearer & Espelage, 2010, p. 187), stated that attachment security has been correlated with a child's interpersonal functioning, social competence and well-being in adolescence.

According to the Attachment Theory, children who formed secure attachments with their primary caregivers as a result of experiencing them as supportive and attentive to their needs will be better able to also form secure and healthy attachments and relationships with family, teachers and peers. The prediction that children with insecure attachments will be prone to bullying behaviour was supported by the work of researchers such as Connolly and Moore (2001), Monks, Smith, and Swettenham (2005) and Ybarra and Mitchell, (2004). Children who

engage in bullying behaviour experienced their parents as not supporting them in an emotional or social manner and they also indicated the absence of a parent.

In a study conducted by Fanti and Georgiou (2013), the researchers predicted a negative parent-child relationship between the bullies and their parents as a result of high levels of conflict and low levels of the experience of closeness with their parents. Literature on the causes of bullying furthermore indicated that children who come from abusive home environments often engage in bullying behaviour at school. They end up bullying their peers as they may view bullying and abuse as normal behaviour as they observed it from their parents. This is supported by the Social Cognitive Theory of Bandura (1977) who illustrated the importance of modelling. This means that children learn socially unacceptable behaviour such as bullying from observing the behaviour of another person such as a parent.

Being a parent and being considered a good parent can be one of the most difficult tasks in life. As indicated by literature, the behaviour, actions and qualities of a parent can have a direct influence on the behaviour of children. Another aspect that might be directly related to the cause of a child engaging in bullying is the relationship between a parent and a child. This does not only refer to how the child perceives the parent, but how a parent experience parenting can play a role in whether a parent may be considered a good parent. Various factors play a role in whether a parent will be capable of building a good relationship with their child. As stated earlier, the Attachment Theory showed the important role of parent involvement and interaction with a child. Gerard (2010) developed the PCRI to measure how parents experiences parenting, the level of support they feel they are receiving, how involved they are in the lives of their child, how well they think they communicate with their child, their ability to effectively develop disciplining techniques that will not lead to a child feeling confused or discouraged, their ability to promote their child's independence, and how they view the role each parent plays in parenting (Kapalin, 2015).

In the current study, I included parents of bullies and parents of non-bullies and postulated that the parents of the bullies will score lower on the sub-scales of the PCRI than the parents of the non-bullies. Evident from previous research (Bjereld & Petzold, 2017; Fanti & Georgiou, 2013; Rigby, 2013), bullies have poorer relationships with their parents compared to non-bullies and the family of bullies are often less cohesive.

The results for the participating fathers on the PCRI showed that the fathers of the bullies achieved low mean scores on the Satisfaction, Involvement and Communication scales and the

fathers of the non-bullies achieved low mean scores on the Involvement and Communication scales. Results for the participating mothers showed that the mothers of the bullies achieved low mean scores on the Support, Satisfaction, Involvement and Communication scales whereas the mothers of the non-bullies achieved low scores on the Involvement and Communication scales.

The low scores achieved by the parents of the bullies and the parents of the non-bullies on the Involvement and Communication scale imply that the parents do not feel that they are involved in the lives of their children and their activities and they are not communicating effectively with their children. According to Gerard (2010) who developed the PCRI, parental involvement and effective communication are very important aspects of parenting as parent involvement is related to the parent's concern for the welfare of the child. Not knowing who your child is, by not being involved, can result in the parent not being able to attend to the child's specific needs as they will not know what these are as they do not communicate with the child to find out.

The items of the parental Support scale were designed to determine the presence or absence of financial strain experienced by a parent and the presence or absence of others who provide the parent with assistance in successfully fulfilling their parenting duties. Research on this subject indicated that parents who perceive themselves as receiving financial, practical and emotional support from others, are better able to provide and care for the needs and well-being of their child. Parents who feel supported will ultimately experience parenting as pleasurable. This will be evident in a high score achieved on the Satisfaction with parenting scale.

The parents of the bullies also scored low on the Satisfaction scale. This means that the parents do not experience enjoyment from being a parent. The low score for the mothers of the bullies on the Support scale may be a reason why they are not experiencing pleasure from being a parent as the Support scale is related to the experience of adequate emotional and practical support. A parent who experience receiving support will be more inclined to experience joy in being a parent. In order to be considered to have a good parent-child relationship, the parent must experience parenting as satisfactory. Researchers on the topic of parent-child relationship and their satisfaction with parenting indicated that parents who do not perceive parenting in a positive manner also often wonder if they made the right decision in having children (Bornstein, Putnick, & Suwalsky, 2017; Gerard, 2010; Johnston & Mash, 1989). The Satisfaction with Parenting scale is therefore based on the idea that parents who achieve high scores will then also be perceived as good parents.

All the parents scored high on the Limit Setting scale. This scale measures the effectiveness of parents to develop disciplining techniques that will lead to children knowing what is expected of them. Being able to set limits and the type of disciplining techniques will depend on the parenting style of the parents. The results for the parenting styles will be discussed, however, as stated by Baumrind (1971), the type of parenting style chosen by parents will either make children feel secure, neglected or frightened. Literature on discipline and parenting styles explains that children who were raised in an environment where clear limits were set by parents and where the reasons for punishment were explained to the child displayed less behavioural problems compared to children who were raised in either a home environment where they feared their parents or felt confused by the role of the parent (Baumrind, 1971; Gerard, 2010; Querido, Warner, & Eyberg, 2002; Sangawi, Adams, & Reissland, 2015). In the current study, I hypothesised that the parents of the bullies will score lower on this scale compared to the parents of the non-bullies. Despite significant differences, the scores still imply that both groups of parents showed that they feel that their disciplining techniques are effective in setting limits for their child.

The Autonomy scale measured the willingness of parents to promote their child's independence. This means that parents trust their child, allow their child to make mistakes and to learn from them and they do not monitor their child's behaviour excessively (Gerard, 2010). The importance of autonomy was also discussed by Erikson (1974, 1980) in his psychosocial stages of development. The second stage involved Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt. Erikson explained that a child between the ages of 18 months to 3 years is focused on developing a sense of personal control and independence. A child who has successfully completed this stage will be experienced by people as confident in their ability to do things on their own and will then also be more successful and can approach the challenges of life in a confident manner. The results for the participating parents on the Autonomy scale showed that all the parents scored high which indicates that they all feel that they raise their child in such a manner that will promote their independence. Children who grow up in an environment where their behaviour is not constantly monitored by their parents will be encouraged to develop the skill of autonomy which will lead to the development of self-confidence and greater maturity. Children who can function on an independent level will perform better at school. Parents who promote their child's independence will also contribute to their child's overall psychosocial growth (Baumrind, 1971; Erikson, 1974, 1980; Gerard, 2010). It is important to note that although all the participants scored high on this scale, the scores achieved by the fathers of the

non-bullies were significantly higher than the scores of the fathers of the bullies but the there was no significant difference between the scores of the mothers of the bullies and mothers of the non-bullies.

The final scale on the PCRI was the Role Orientation scale. This scale differs from the other scales; whereas the other scales represent dimensions which show a clear positive or negative pole, this scale represents two approaches to shared parental responsibility (Gerard, 2010). It is therefore important to note that a high or low score achieved by the participants did not indicate positive or negative behaviour or influence on their child, it simply indicated the parents' views on the roles of parents. Parents may therefore indicate that they either feel that both parents play an important role in the parenting relationship and that the parenting roles should be shared or parents could indicate that they believe that there are distinct roles which should be fulfilled by either the mother or the father. According to Gerard (2010) he stated that during his research on parent-child relationship, the parents in his study showed a definite preference for the egalitarian model of parental responsibility which implies that parents are equally responsible and that parenting responsibilities should be shared. He found that this was more evident in cases where the families indicated that both parents were employed. During the scoring process, Gerard (2010) stated that parents who scored above 59 on this scale showed attitudes consistent with the sharing of parental responsibilities and scores below 40 indicated a more "traditional" view of parenting which showed that parents indicated that they believed that there are distinct roles that should be fulfilled by each gender. For example, these parents believed that mothers are solely responsible for housekeeping and raising the children and the role of the father is to provide and support his family. The scores of the participants in this study showed that all the parents scored above 40, indicating that they are leaning towards the egalitarian model of responsibility as explained by Gerard showing that they feel strong about the sharing of parental roles. Differences between the parents of the bullies and the non-bullies were not significant.

The results on the PCRI partly supported the hypothesis as the parents of the bullies scored significantly lower on most of the scales of the measure. However, as stated earlier, it was important to take the requirements of the scores to be evaluated as high or low in consideration. The scores showed that the fathers of the bullies scored high on the Support, Limit Setting and Autonomy scales whereas the fathers of the non-bullies achieved high scores on the Support, Satisfaction, Limit Setting and Autonomy scales. Both groups scored low on the Involvement and Communication scales. It is therefore safe to conclude that both groups showed that they

perceived themselves as having relatively good relationships with their children but that the fathers of the non-bullies seem to have a stronger bond with their children. Similar patterns were found for the participating mothers. The mothers of the bullies, however, also scored low on the Support scale and their perception of their relationship with their children might be more negative than in the case of the fathers. Although some support is provided for an association between the parent-child relationship and bullying behaviour, causality was not tested and one can only hypothesise a degree of directionality (i.e. a poor relationship implies greater engagement in bullying behaviour). It is interesting to note that the non-bully parents correctly identified their children as not being a bully (100%) but only approximately half (46%) of the parents in the other group agreed with the teachers' categorisation of their children as bullies.

Hypothesis 4

Parents of the identified bullies will have a more authoritarian parenting style, whereas parents of non-bullies will be more authoritative on the PSQ

There are various factors that may play a role in a child engaging in bullying behaviour. As indicated, the literature suggests that the level of a parent's emotional intelligence and the relationship between the parent and child may play a role in the development of problem behaviour in a child (some support was found in this study for the latter). Another factor that may play a role in the reason for children to engage in bullying type of behaviour is the type of parenting style practised by parents. This statement is supported by the findings of researchers such as Alizadeh, Talib, Abdullah and Mansor, (2011), Baumrind (1971), Hosokawa and Katsura (2018) and Howenstein, Kumar, Casamassimo, McTigue, Coury, and Yin (2015) who noticed that children exhibited different types of behaviours which was directly related to the type of parenting style adopted by the parents. The three parenting styles identified by Baumrind (1971) included the authoritative, authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. The authoritative parenting style is considered the more favourable style as parents are perceived as warm, responsive, approachable, supportive and values autonomy. The outcome of this style is associated with high academic performance, good social skills, less mental illness, less delinquency and lower occurrence of problem behaviour. In contrast to this positive type of parenting style are the authoritarian and permissive parenting styles. Parents who adopted the authoritarian parenting style was described as unresponsive to the needs of their child, having high but unrealistic expectations for their child and who sets strict rules without providing explanations for the reasons for the rules and for the consequences should the rules not be obeyed. The outcomes of this type of parenting style were directly associated with poor social

skills, low self-esteems, mental illness, delinquency and substance abuse. The third parenting style is the permissive parenting style. Parents who adopted this type of style was described as warm and responsive but did not set clear limits and rules and responded in too lenient a manner to rules that were not obeyed or problem behaviour displayed by the child. The outcomes of this type of style was associated with children showing poor social skills which led to problematic relationship building, the presence of impulsive behaviour and egocentrism (Baumrind, 1971; Hosokawa & Katsura, 2018; Querido et al., 2002; Roman, Makwakwa, & Lacante, 2016; Rosli, 2014).

Based on the findings of previous literature on the effect of parenting styles on the behaviour of children, the current study focused on bullies and possible causes and reasons for their engagement in bullying behaviour. As the literature showed that the adoption of a more authoritarian type of parenting style is directly associated with problem behaviour, I wanted to test this hypothesis by measuring the type of parenting style chosen by the parents of the bullies to determine whether there was a relationship between their behaviour and their parents preferred type of parenting.

As stated in the previous discussions, the results for the participating fathers of the bullies, fathers of the non-bullies, mothers of the bullies and mothers of the non-bullies were separately analysed as the parents completed separate questionnaires. The fathers of the bullies showed a clear preference for the Authoritarian parenting style whereas the mothers of the bullies showed an equal preference for the Authoritarian and Authoritative styles. The fathers of the non-bullies also did not show a clear preference between these two styles but the mothers of the non-bullies seem somewhat more in favour of the Authoritative style. Preferred parenting style was also only significantly related to child behaviour in the case of the fathers and the hypothesis was partially supported.

From the discussions it is clear that parents and their behaviour and actions play some role in how a child will choose to behave.

In the following section the results for phase two is discussed.

7.4 DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS FOR PHASE 2

Bullying in the school context remains a universal problem and is an important topic for effective intervention. Studies found that bullying and victimisation experiences are associated with negative outcomes for both the bully and the bullied. Some outcomes of school bullying include poor academic performance, truancy from school, higher rates of school drop-outs,

mental health problems such as increased suicide ideation, lack of self-esteem and self-confidence and higher levels of social anxiety (Blumen, 2013; Gaffney, Farrington, & Ttofi, 2019; Smith, 2014).

The serious effects and outcomes of bullying within the school context led to numerous attempts to develop intervention programmes to prevent the occurrence of bullying. Many programmes proved to be successful in the context which they were designed for. The well-known OBPP was viewed successful for its three-level intervention which included school-wide, classroom-level and individual-level. This means that teachers and students were involved in the programme and additional individualised intervention was provided to students who were involved in bullying behaviour (Olweus, 1993). Other examples include the KiVa programme that focused on learners in Grades 4 to 6 (Kärnä, Voeten, Little, Alanen, Pskiparta, & Salmivalli, 2011). The aim of this programme was on the role that a peer group plays in maintaining bullying, the increase of empathy towards the victims of bullying and strategies that will assist children in supporting the victims of bullying. The Steps to Respect programme designed for students from Grades 3 to 6 is a curriculum-based programme which contains skills and literature-based lessons (Hirschstein & Frey, 2006). These lessons focus on social-emotional skills to encourage positive peer relations, managing emotions and recognising and reporting bullying. The programme was designed for children who are involved in bullying.

Despite various attempts to develop intervention programmes, and despite the development of successful intervention programmes, literature shows that bullying remains a major problem and daily occurrence in local and international schools. Studies and views on the reasons for children to engage in bullying behaviour focused on the lack of social and emotional skills which shows a lack of emotional intelligence (Brackett & Rivers, 2014; Kokkinos & Kipritsi, 2011; Parker, Kloosterman & Summerfeldt, 2014; Rivers, 2014).

The RULER Approach Programme designed by Brackett and Rivers (2014) is an emotional literacy programme designed to help individuals to regulate their emotions. Mark Brackett explained that the RULER Approach teaches the fundamentals for being emotionally intelligent which include recognising, understanding, labelling, expressing and regulating your emotions. This programme was implemented in a school as preventative tool against bullying as the staff noticed that the school curriculum did not included teaching children how to manage their emotions and the inability to manage or regulate your emotions is viewed as one of the causes of children engaging in bullying (Brackett & Rivers, 2014; Herrenkohl, Herrenkohl, Benner, Proulx, & Calvo, 2013).

Emotional intelligence differs from intelligence in the sense that it is not a genetic factor and can therefore be learned. As stated by the Social Cognitive Theory of Bandura (1977), children learn to behave in certain ways by modelling the behaviour of their parents. Important contextual factors therefore include the parents' level of emotional intelligence, the home environment and appropriate role modelling.

Children who are raised in a home where problems are solved through the means of aggression will accept this as the norm and will then act in a similar way in a context such as the school where they must solve problems. Children who are raised in abusive home environments often learn that to avoid conflict or abuse, they should not express their needs or emotions. Abusive home environments are also not characterised by parents who sit down and listen to their child and discuss daily experiences, which leads to a child not developing good listening skills or an appreciation of others' feelings. Another factor that plays a role in bullying is the fact that bullying or aggressive behaviour is often rewarded by parents. Boys are often taught by their fathers that the best way to solve a problem or the best way to get your way is to fight for it (Bauer, Herrenkohl, & Hawkins, 2006; Kruger, 2013; Laas, 2012; Lucas, Jernbro, & Tindberg, 2015; Mustanoja, Luukonen, Hakko, Räsänen, & Säävälä, 2011).

Parents play an important role in the development of empathy in a child. Children are not born with empathy and therefore it can be learned by the most important role players in their lives namely, their primary caregivers or parents. Leonard (2018) stated that the best way for a child to learn how to act in an empathetic way towards others is when their parents' model this type of behaviour towards them.

Literature and research on domestic violence in South Africa showed that domestic violence in the country is on the rise, and that the absence of male role models in South African families affects the way boys are raised (The South African College of Applied Psychology, 2018).

Research shows that the key to optimal development in early childhood is the attachment the child forms with the primary caregiver. Studies on South African families showed that many children are often not raised by their biological parents and often attachment with the guardian is not formed. As a result, the development of values is hindered which leads to a child growing up not having the ability to respond in an empathetic manner towards vulnerable people, such as children, because they have not developed these skills – as they were not taught

or the skills were not modelled for them to learn from (South African College of Applied Psychology, 2018).

From the above discussion it is clear that children who engage in bullying behaviour often do so as a result of not being able to express their feelings and needs, not being able to act in an empathetic manner towards others and appreciate the feelings of others, not being able to deal with problems in a socially acceptable manner and will not have a positive attitude towards life.

Emotional intelligence is characterised by the following:

- The ability to understand your emotions and to effectively express and communicate your emotions;
- The ability to have good interpersonal relationships and to understand and appreciate the feelings and emotions of others;
- The ability to deal with problems in a positive manner;
- The ability to have a positive outlook on life; and
- The ability to effectively deal with daily demands and be a happy person (Horrigan, 2011).

Hypothesis 1

Comparing the pretest and posttest results on the BarOn EQ-i:YV, the participating bullies (experimental group) will score significantly higher on the BarOn EQ-i:YV after the implementation of the intervention programme.

Reuven BarOn and James Parker (2000) developed the BarOn EQ-i:YV Inventory to measure the emotional intelligence of children. The inventory is divided into five scales to measure the emotional intelligence of children between the ages of 7 and 18 years old. For the purpose of the second phase of this study, I used this inventory to measure the emotional intelligence levels of the children who were identified as bullies. This instrument was used before and after the implementation of the intervention programme. Research showed the important role emotional intelligence plays in the lives of children and their ability to function in society and to behave in a socially acceptable manner. As a result of the lack of literature on the development of an intervention programme that focuses on the bully and the enhancement of the emotional intelligence skills of the bully, an intervention programme designed for the

South African child who is identified as a bully in an attempt to decrease the occurrence of bullying behaviour in the school context was developed for this study.

The emotional intelligence of the bullies was measured by means of the BarOn EQ-i:YV before the implementation of the intervention programme. The pretest was administered to determine the Total EQ of the participants and to use the scores on each scale as guidance to the type of activities that should be included in the intervention programme that would assist the participants in the enhancement of the emotional intelligence (detail on the programme is provided in Chapter 5). The results obtained for the bully group in Phase 1 was also considered.

The first scale in the BarOn EQ-i:YV is the Intrapersonal scale which measured the ability of the participants to understand, express and communicate their own emotions. The scores showed that the bullies in the control and experimental group scored low on this scale. I used this information together with previous literature on how to assist a child in understanding, expressing and communicating their emotions to develop activities to be included in the intervention programme that would improve this skill.

The results on the Interpersonal scale which measured the participants' ability to build and maintain healthy interpersonal relationships showed that both groups scored markedly low on this scale. Research showed that bullies are often loners as they do not know how to interact with others, and children often do not want to play with them because they behave inappropriately, saying bad things or hurting others (BarOn & Parker, 2000). The ability to build and maintain good relationships involves the ability of a child to be good listeners and to understand and appreciate the feelings of others. It is clear that bullies first have to be taught the skill to understand their own emotions before they can be taught to appreciate and understand the feelings of others. It was therefore important for me to include activities that would help the participants to learn skills on how to form friendships and include activities on how to be a good listener and how to recognise how others are feeling and how to react to their feelings.

The Adaptability scale measured the participants' ability to effectively manage change and to find positive ways to help them deal with everyday problems. The results on this scale showed that both groups scored very low on this scale. This indicated that they do not feel that they are equipped with appropriate skills to help them deal with everyday problems. The researcher focused on including activities that assisted with the improvement of problem-solving skills.

Scoring low on the previous scales indicates why participants will achieve low scores on the Stress Management scale. Bullies are often characterised by not functioning well when they are under pressure to solve a problem or to complete a task (BarOn & Parker, 2000; Brackett & Rivers, 2014). Bullies are not taught how to handle stress and will therefore give up when they are struggling or they will respond with emotional outbursts such as crying, fighting or even destroying property. The scores showed that the bullies in the control group scored low and the bullies in the experimental group also scored low.

Low scores indicated that the participants did not feel that they can stay calm during stressful situations. Teaching children how to manage themselves when faced with stressful situations needed to be included in the programme.

Not being able to understand your own emotions, lacking the ability to build and maintain healthy relationships, not being able to deal with different problems children are faced with on a daily basis and not being able to deal with stressful situations will ultimately result in a child not being happy or having a positive outlook on life. This may then be why a child will not score high on the General Mood scale. The results for this scale showed that the bullies in both groups scored markedly low on this scale. I hoped that by enhancing the skills they lacked as indicated by the previous scales would lead to an improvement in their outlook on life. However, it is important for children to learn how to set goals and find the things that make them happy. Children who are identified as bullies are often not able to see the positive in life as they are used to being surrounded by negativism (BarOn & Parker, 2000; Rivers, 2014).

It is clear that the bullies in both groups scored low to markedly low on the scales of the BarOn EQ-i:YV which then makes it understandable why both groups scored markedly low on the Total EQ scale.

Based on previous literature and the results from the BarOn EQ-i:YV, I focused on the inclusion of activities that would assist in the enhancement of intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management and general mood skills. As a registered psychologist and teacher, I observed the following important aspects to consider when planning activities for learners:

- The activities must be developed to meet objectives
- The activities must be age appropriate
- The activities must be enjoyable

During the planning of the development of the programme, I involved my class in formulating ideas for the development of the activities. I found that including learners in the process of planning made them feel important, in the sense that I felt that their opinions matter. I observed that learners felt encouraged and self-confident in sharing their ideas. After this experience the children involved wanted to form part of the research process.

I used the scales included in the BarOn EQ-i:YV as a guide for the development and selection of the topics and themes for the programme. The first topic was Intrapersonal which then included topics to assist the participants to become more aware of themselves and their emotions. Activities which focused on who they are, what they enjoy and what they think they are good at were included.

Being emotionally intelligent involves the ability to understand one's own emotions. Activities were developed that focused on teaching the participants to become more aware of the different emotions, emotions they have experienced and the physical effects emotions can have on the body. It was important for the participants to become aware that the experience of emotions is normal but the reaction to these emotions are more important as this will determine their level of emotional intelligence.

Literature on the role fathers play in bullying behaviour showed that fathers often define assertiveness as a boy standing up for yourself and fighting for what you want in life (de Vries, Verlinden, & Tiemeier, 2018). I included activities to help redefine the meaning of assertiveness for the child to still be able to be assertive but to learn how to do it in an acceptable manner.

The last theme under the intrapersonal topic included self-actualisation. In psychology the term "self-actualisation" refers to the ability of a people to reach their full potential (Francis & Kritsonis, 2006). The psychologist Abraham Maslow outlined the hierarchy of needs that motivate human behaviour. At the peak of this hierarchy is self-actualisation which he described as the stage where people experience feelings of being more powerful after realising one's abilities and the resources available to become the best person you can be (Abulof, 2017; Jerome, 2013; Taormina & Gao, 2013).

The results on the posttest for the bullies in the experimental and control group showed a significant difference on the Intrapersonal scale. It was evident from the scores that the experimental group scored very high on this scale indicating that the participants indicated that they have a better understanding of their emotions and they are also more capable of effectively

communicating and expressing their feelings and needs. Regarding the scores achieved by the bullies in the control group who was not exposed to the intervention programme, they scored lower on the posttest compared to the pretest. There was therefore no improvement in their ability to effectively understand, communicate and express their emotions.

The next topic included in the programme focused on Interpersonal skills. Being able to build satisfying interpersonal relationships requires a person to be able to listen to the needs of others and to understand and appreciate their feelings. The term "empathy" refers to the ability to understand and share the feeling of others (Cuff, Brown, & Taylor, 2014). Activities focused on teaching the participants the importance of understanding how they feel in certain situations in order to understand that others may experience the same feelings in similar situations or they may experience different feelings. It is important for the participants to understand that people are different and have different reactions and that it is acceptable to be different. Understanding their emotions and how they respond assisted them in gaining a better understanding of the reactions of others and the possible reasons for the reactions. The goal was to teach the participants the skill of caring for themselves and for others.

Once they had a better understanding of the importance of caring and having empathy for others, the next step was to improve their interpersonal skill of building and maintaining friendships (relationships). The activities focused on how to care about others and the skills that they need to make friends. What they need for people to like them and to want to be friends with them.

The results on the posttest showed that there was an improvement in the scores of the bullies in the experimental group. The score achieved in the pretest fell in the markedly low range, whereas the score achieved on the posttest fell in the average range. Although this score is higher, an average score shows that they have adequate emotional and social capacity but that there is still room for improvement. There was no difference between the scores for the control group.

The next topic focused on building the Adaptability skills of the participating bullies in the experimental group. Some of the questions included in the BarOn EQ-i:YV focused on how children deal with problems and finding solutions. Children who do not have well-developed problem-solving skills may often give up, become frustrated and have difficulty in finding ways to deal with their problems (BarOn & Parker, 2000). It was thus important to focus on problem solving skills, making choices, what possible consequences could be for the choices

they make and the importance of taking responsibility for the choices they make. The results on the Adaptability scale showed a difference between the pretest and posttest scores for the bullies in the experimental group. On the pretest the bullies scored very low on this scale, whereas the score on the posttest was in the average range. This showed that the bullies now had an adequate emotional and social ability.

One of the major weaknesses of a bully is the management of stress (BarOn & Parker, 2000; Gavin, 2019). This may be the result of their parents not teaching them how to effectively deal with stressful situations. The stress management topic included activities which focused on training the bullies how to manage themselves when faced with a situation that requires them to remain calm. Literature indicated that bullies often bully others as a form of coping mechanism when having to deal with a stressful situation or as stated earlier it may be learned from observing abusive or prejudiced attitudes from home (Gavin, 2019). The improved results on the pretest may be related to the inclusion of activities that taught the bullies how to stay calm when faced with a stressful situation. These activities focused on alternative ways to deal with stress that did not include physical abuse or anger outbursts. The results on the posttest showed that the bullies scored in the average range on this scale indicating that they have acquired adequate emotional and social skills compared to the underdeveloped emotional and social capacity scored in the pre-test.

The final topic in the programme focused on positive thoughts and optimism. The activities included focused on helping bullies to change negative thoughts into more positive ones. Being a bully can be stressful and can have a negative effect on the bully and not only on the victims. At school and at home bullies are often surrounded by negativism and are often judged or bullied by parents, teachers and learners (Baras, 2011; Mishna, Scarcello, Pepler, & Wiener, 2005; Oakes, 2019). The results on the General mood scale showed some improvement from the score achieved on the pretest. However, the score for General mood still showed underdeveloped emotional and social capacity with room for improvement. The indicated that it will not only take 12 weeks to change the bullies outlook on life but that they are willing to try and see the positive in themselves, in others and in life.

Results indicated a significant increase in the total EQ for the bullies in the experimental group after the intervention programme compared to the control group, and the hypothesis could be accepted.

It is clear from the above discussion that it is important to develop all the aspects of emotional intelligence to help bullies to improve their emotional intelligence skills. The success of the programme was based on the involvement of the teachers and the learners. The overall success and improvement of the bully's skills was a result of the type of activities that was included in the programme.

Hypothesis 2

Comparing the pre and posttest results, the participating bullies (experimental group) will behave in a more positive manner and will receive higher positive behaviour scores on the Teacher Rating Scale after the implementation of the intervention programme.

Previous literature showed that intervention programmes which included the involvement of teachers proved to be successful (Kallestad & Olweus, 2003; Olweus, 1993). I involved the teachers as they were able to observe the behaviour of the participants daily and when they were not with the researcher in group sessions. The Teacher Rating Scale required the teachers to mark the number of positive behaviour and negative behaviour displayed by a child and then gives a mark out of 10 for every day of the week for 12 weeks. The participants only received a mark for the positive behaviour observed. The teachers also received a pretest questionnaire to be completed before the implementation of the intervention programme and then a posttest was given after the completion of the intervention programme.

The results for the Teacher Rating Scale showed that both groups scored below 50% on the pretest indicating a display of more negative behaviour.

Results indicated a significant increase in the positive behaviour scores for the bullies in the experimental group after the intervention programme and compared to the control group, and the hypothesis could be accepted. The teachers indicated improved behaviour in class and on the playground. The positive aspects the teachers were asked to observe and rate the bullies on included the following:

- Respect for teachers
- Respect for self
- Respect for peers
- Good behaviour in class
- No bullying in class
- Completion of work
- Completion of homework

- Ability to control emotions
- Ability to show empathy and
- Positive attitude

The improvement in the results showed that the bullies were more capable of managing themselves in a more positive manner compared to poor scores achieved before the implementation of the programme. During the implementation of the programme I noticed that the bullies were aware of the teacher observation and that they worked towards achieving good marks. Some of the participants would give some feedback about their week and was proud to share when they received a compliment from a teacher.

In psychology the term desensitisation refers to a decrease in reactivity or sensitivity to negative or aversive stimulus after repeated exposure to it (McLeod, 2015; Mrug, Madan, Cook, & Wright, 2015; Reber, 1995). Children who are used to being exposed to negative behaviour and negative attitudes at home may become desensitised for negative attitudes and negative behaviour displayed by children and teachers. It is therefore important to ensure that bullies at least experience the school environment as positive. Daily positive feedback from teachers could assist in making bullies aware that the world they live in does not only exist of negativity.

7.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the results from the data that were analysed in Chapter 6 were discussed in detail and in accordance with the stated research questions, objectives and hypotheses that were formulated for this study.

The results for the participating parents of the bullies showed that the hypothesis indicating that the parents of the bullies will score low on the subscales of the EQ questionnaire was not supported as both the fathers and the mothers of the bullies only scored low on some of the sub-scales.

Hypothesis 3 for Phase 1 of the pilot study which stated that the parents of the bullies will score low on the sub-scales of the PCRI was partly supported in the case of the fathers and the mothers of the bullies as they only scored numerically lower on the sub-scales compared to the parents of the non-bullies.

The results for the relationship between the dominant parenting style of the parents and their child's engagement in bullying behaviour, showed a positive relationship between the

Authoritarian parenting style of the fathers of the bullies but not for the Authoritative parenting style chosen by the mothers of the bullies.

The results for the enhancement of the EQ skills of the bullies and a decrease in the occurrence of bullying behaviour within the primary school context showed that the implementation of the anti-bullying intervention programme proved to be successful. The results showed an improvement in the Total EQ scores of the bullies. Improved scores on the Teacher Rating scale were also evident which indicates a decrease in the occurrence of bullying behaviour. The final chapter of this study will provide an overview of the findings, strengths and limitations of the current study and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS, STRENGTHS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The concluding section of this research highlights the most important findings of the enquiry with reference to the hypotheses tested in this study. The strengths and limitations of the study are also discussed and in closing the recommendations for future research and practical implementation are conferred.

8.2 CONCLUSIONS

Children's happiness and health depend on whether they are equipped with the skills required for healthy functioning. It is thus important for children to learn or develop the skills they require to function in a healthy manner in order to become successful adults. Skills such as emotional intelligence are viewed as important in first understanding the self, and then understanding the people you interact with. There are various factors that can play a role in the prevention of children developing these skills, such as parents lacking these skills and their inability to assist their children in developing these skills. The lack of these skills can have a profound influence on the life of the child and can often lead to serious consequences such as bullying behaviour.

Despite attempts by schools to implement bullying intervention and prevention programmes, bullying appears to remain a global problem within the school context (Al-Ali & Shattnawi, 2018; Carroll-Lind & Kearney, 2004). As a result, research on the topic of bullying and the reasons for the occurrence of bullying behaviour in the school context will remain a topic of interest until a solution can be found.

Research showed that programmes that included the development of emotional intelligence skills, involved the whole school, provided individual support to both bullies and victims and which focused on including games or activities might have better success in reducing bullying behaviour in the school context (Brackett & Rivers, 2014; Rivers, 2014).

The suitability of the questionnaires used in this study was established during the pilot study. Where available, information on the reliability and validity of these questionnaires as well as research findings related to the local context were considered. The reliability of the self-developed questionnaire was shown to be adequate for research purposes at a group level

where no individual interpretation on single subscale scores was involved. In all instances, suitability in terms of language level, length of the instrument and the clarity of the instructions were determined. It should be noted that the focus of the study was not on the feasibility of these instruments in a cross-cultural context per se. Although the psychometric properties were regarded as adequate for the purposes of the present study, it is important to note that language and socio-cultural factors could have had some effect on how the participants interpreted and answered the questions which then may have affected the results.

In Phase 1 of this study, the objective was to determine the emotional intelligence levels of identified bullies and their parents and comparing them with identified non-bullies and their parents. I hypothesised that the bullies will score significantly lower on the BarOn EQ-i:YV compared to the identified non-bullies and the parents of the bullies will score significantly lower on the Self-developed Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire for Adults. The first hypothesis was supported as the bully group scored significantly lower on all the scales of the BarOn EQ-i:YV. The findings were supported by a study conducted by Knowler and Frederickson (2013) on the effects of an emotional literacy intervention on learners who were identified as bullies. In their study they found that learners who were perceived by others as co-operative and less aggressive scored higher on trait emotional intelligence and those learners who were described as the rule violators and the ones with adjustment difficulties scored lower on the trait emotional intelligence. In the present study, I measured the learner's ability to understand and express their emotions, to build and maintain healthy relationships, their ability to remain calm during stressful situation and their ability to be effective in managing change. The rationale for measuring these emotional intelligence skills was supported by the work of researchers such as Bar-On and Parker, (2000) and Rivers (2014) who stated that children engage in bullying behaviour when they have not learned to effectively recognise, understand, label, express and report their emotions. The intervention in the present study was therefore aimed at the development of these skills.

Literature showed that parents play and important role in the emotional and social development of their child. Parents can improve their child's emotional intelligence by providing guidance and modelling. A parent who models skills of emotional intelligence may encourage their child to do the same. Children who can express their feelings will also have more self-confidence and self-respect, which may lead to a decrease in behaviour problems (Brackett & Rivers, 2014; Hessler & Katz, 2010). The scores for the parents of the bullies did not support the second hypothesis as the results showed that the fathers and mothers of the

bullies scored numerically lower on some of the scales but that these differences were not significant. Although the role of the parent's EQ could not be established in the present study, literature supports positive and negative influences if the related skills are respectively practiced or lacking in the home environment.

Some support was found for an association between the parent-child relationship and bullying behaviour. Hypothesis three for Phase 1 stated that the parents of the bullies will score significantly lower on the PCRI than the parents of the non-bullies. They scored significantly lower on most of the scales but a qualitative interpretation of the mean scores on the various scaled showed that the fathers of the bullies and the fathers of the non-bullies perceived their relationship with their children as relatively good. The latter probably have a stronger bond with their children. Similar results were found for the mothers, with an additional concern in the case of the mothers of the bullies regarding the adequacy of the support they receive.

Behaviour patterns begin at home; therefore, parents play the most important role in the emotional, social, academic and behavioural development of their child (Jogdand & Naik, 2014; Lester, Pearce, Waters, & Barnes, 2017; Ruholt, Gore, & Dukes, 2015). The importance of a healthy parent child relationship which involves support, involvement, and communication in the prevention of bullying behaviour is supported by various researchers (Bowes, Arseneault, Maughan, Taylor, Caspi, & Moffit, 2009; Durisic & Bunijevac, 2017; Essau & Hutchinson, 2008; Garcia & Thornton, 2014; Gerard, 2010; Larrañaga, Yubero, & Navarro, 2018; Ruholt et al., 2015).

In order to prevent the development of unacceptable behaviour, researchers pointed out the importance of factors such as effective communication between parents and children, parental support, limit setting, promotion of independence of the child and role orientation of the parent (Bowes et al., 2009; Essau & Hutchinson, 2008; Gerard, 2010; Marks, Bun, & McHale, 2009; Straight, 2018).

Previous research showed an effect between the type of parenting style adopted by parents and the development of bullying behaviour. Bowes et al. (2009), Baumrind (1971) and Olweus (1993) stated that children who are raised by parents who use an authoritative parenting style which is characterised by the promotion of autonomy, limit setting and responsiveness to the needs of the child are less likely to engage in socially unacceptable behaviour such as bullying. In turn, they explained that children who are raised in a home environment where parents are overly permissive or where a more authoritarian parenting style is adopted are more likely to

become involved in bullying behaviour. Parenting style was only significantly related to child behaviour in the case of the fathers with a clear preference for an Authoritarian style by the fathers of the bullies.

Phase 2 of this study involved the implementation and evaluation of the intervention programme. The level of emotional intelligence of the participating bullies in the experimental and control group were measured pre and post the implementation of the intervention programme. Pretest performance was considered together with the results from the first phase of the study in the development of the intervention programme. It was hypothesised that the experimental group will score higher on the Total EQ after the implementation of the intervention programme. The results supported the hypothesis as the scores of this group showed a significant improvement. Posttest results on the Intrapersonal and General Mood scale showed there is room for improvement especially on the General Mood scale. Intervention over a longer period of time seems indicated.

One of the requirements indicated by previous research for successful intervention was the involvement of teachers (Fox, Farrington, & Ttofi, 2012; Gordon, 2019; Olweus & Limber, 2010). I developed a Teacher Rating scale that required the teachers of the participating bullies to rate their positive and negative behaviour pre and post the implementation of the intervention programme. I hypothesised that the participating bullies in the experimental group will achieve more positive behaviour scores on the Teacher Rating Scale post the implementation of the intervention programme. The result supported the hypothesis as this group scored significantly higher on the posttest of the Teacher Rating Scale. One of the questions included in the questionnaire required the teachers to indicate whether the participants were involved in any bullying behaviour. From these results it is clear that there was a decrease in the occurrence of bullying behaviour among the participating bullies post the implementation of the intervention programme.

8.3 LIMITATIONS

The primary limitation of this study was that the results cannot be generalised in reference to the effect an emotional intelligence skills enhancement intervention programme may have on decreasing bullying behaviour in the primary school context. The research was intended to determine whether the enhancement of the emotional intelligence skills of children between the ages of 7 and 13 years old in the primary school context of the Benoni area in Gauteng, South Africa who was identified as bullies can help to reduce the occurrence of bullying. The

aim was to include multicultural primary schools and children from different races and gender into the sample group.

Six schools participated in the pilot study, but due to the sensitivity of the research topic, five principals were reluctant to consent for further participation in Phase 1 and Phase 2. Due to the fact that the participating school in the Benoni is not multicultural, information regarding the results of the implementation of an emotional skills enhancement intervention programme as prevention against bullying behaviour in the primary school context may not produce the same results in different primary school contexts.

More boys than girls were furthermore included in the study. Literature on the prevalence of bullying and gender differences included factors such as the role society plays in the type of bullying behaviour displayed by boys and girls. Turkel (2007) explained that girls are generally viewed as kind and nurturing and not expected to engage in aggressive type of behaviour. As a result, girls will not express their anger and will bullying behaviour take place in the form of gossiping. In contrast, boys are expected to be tough and appear in control and as a result they will also solve their problems in a more physical manner and in the presence of their victim (Smith & Gross, 2006; Turkel, 2007).

The relatively small sample included in Phase 1 and Phase 2 of the study was partly due to the fact that parents were required to give consent for their own participation in Phase 1 of the study and they were also required to give consent for their child to participate in Phase 1 and Phase 2 of the study. Consent also had to be obtained from the children. Many of the parents indicated that they did not give consent as they did not want to be labelled as parents of bullies and some of them denied that their child was a bully. The parents also stated that they did not want their child to be labelled as a bully as this could result in their child being bullied by others. As a result, some of the learners also decided not to sign consent forms due to either being a perpetrator of bullying and then feeling scared that they would become victims of bullying or some of them might have been victims and feared that the bullying might continue once they participated in a bullying intervention programme. As I always maintained confidentiality, none of the children knew who were identified as bullies and who were identified as non-bullies. Some children nevertheless felt threatened as they feared that should their "identity" be revealed they might become victims of bullying or they might be labelled as bullies. Logistical factors also prevented participation in the assessments and the intervention programme. These included reliance on public transport, work hours and work and personal commitments. A multivariate analysis was appropriate in phase 2 of the study to provide for

interaction effects given the experimental design applied in this phase. The small sample in this phase of the study, however, would have affected the power of the statistic. The robust results nevertheless imply that the interpretation of the findings is appropriate.

As explained, the questionnaires were regarded as suitable for inclusion given the research questions. English was, however, a second or third language for some of the parents and children and although, the cross-cultural feasibility of the questionnaires was not per se the focus of the study, it could have affected the findings. A lack of suitable psychological measuring instruments in the South African context remains a concern (Foxcroft, 2004; Laher & Cockcroft, 2013a, 2013b; Muleya, Fourie, & Schlebusch, 2017).

It was evident from Phase 2 that not involving the parents and not providing them with some form of training affected the ability of participants to effectively participate and complete the programme. Some of the participants did not complete their homework books as they indicated that their parents either worked late, did not have time to assist them or the participants were not living with the child during week days. The lack of parental support and the effect thereof was evident as one of the participants struggled to keep up with the programme and found it difficult not to engage in bullying behaviour. It was also evident after the completion of the programme when the same participant relapsed and engaged in bullying behaviour which resulted in the participant being suspended from school. This shows the importance of implementing a programme that can be sustained as it is evident that a short-term programme is not effective in reducing bullying behaviour in all the participants.

Quantitative data were suitable to test the hypotheses that were formulated. This type of data, however, lacks contextual detail. Relationships between bullying behaviour and the emotional skills of the children and their parents, the parent-child relationship and parenting styles were explored, but causality per se was not tested in these relationships. The experimental design did provide support for the success of the intervention programme but there are no non-parametric techniques available that are suitable to the design (Kenton, 2018).

8.4 STRENGTHS OF THE STUDY

This study is useful in that its findings can be used to inform psychological therapeutic practices. It can also make it possible to obtain some understanding of the relationship between emotional intelligence and the enhancement of the emotional intelligence skills of the bully.

Information on the use of the BarOn EQ-i:YV, PCRI and PSQ in the South African context was a strength as South Africa has various cultural contexts that need to be taken into consideration when conducting research.

Emotional intelligence skills enhancement programmes that primarily focus on learners identified as bullies are lacking in South Africa. This study can assist in "closing the gap" in literature and in providing important information that can be included in programme development that can assist in decreasing the prevalence of bullying behaviour occurring in the primary school context in South Africa.

8.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Further research on the association between emotional intelligence and the enhancement of the bully's emotional intelligence skills is needed.

Future research should include parents of the bullies and design a programme to assist them in the development of their own emotional intelligence skills and other factors that may be related to their child engaging in bullying behaviour. Research studies could also include teachers who are directly involved in the life of a bully during school hours and assist these teachers in developing skills that will in turn assist the bullies in improving the skills they are lacking.

8.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICAL IMPLEMENTATION

Combined factors can be addressed by adapting the outcomes of the research study to suit a school's needs in terms of bullying behaviour. Although some bullying programmes may already be in operation in schools, there are areas that are currently not addressed. The model proposed in Table 8.1 includes these as initiatives that should be driven. Each developmental outcome is named according to the general area it addresses. These areas are further broken down into specific areas or topics that need to be addressed in the intervention programme. Descriptions of these objectives are suggested.

The success of an intervention plan against bullying behaviour may include various aspects such as child involvement, time management, planning, parent involvement, teacher involvement and the presentation of the programme. Some aspects related to the topics, information and activities of the programme being presented that should be considered when presenting a programme are included in Table 8.2.

Table 8.1

Specific areas and topics to be addressed in an intervention programme

GENERAL AREA	SPECIFIC AREA	DESCRIPTION OF OBJECTIVES
1. Responsibility	Communicating statement about the school's values, purpose and vision.	Schools must include a statement about bullying and cyberbullying behaviours in the Rights and Responsibilities section of their Child Engagement Policy.
2. Choices and consequences	Communicating statement about the school's prevention strategies and actions.	Schools must include a statement about the intervention plan against bullying and the consequences for actions in their Prevention section of the Child Engagement Policy.
3. Respect and dignity	Communicating statement about the school's guiding principles.	The school must include a statement about Bullying and Harassment and the right to equality in the Guiding Principles section of the Child Engagement Policy.
4. Conflict handling	Communicating statement about the school's student management procedures.	The school must include a statement about Restorative Practices and the type of consequences for inappropriate behaviour in the Student Management Procedures section of the Child Engagement Policy.
5. Emotional Intelligence	Communicating statement about the schools anti-bullying and cyberbullying prevention strategies.	The schools must include a statement about the Anti-bullying and cyberbullying intervention strategies in the Anti-bullying and Cyberbullying section of the Child Engagement Policy.

Table 8.2

Aspects to consider when presenting an intervention programme

Introduction

- Discuss the reason and importance of the programme.
- Discuss confidentiality.
- Discuss the importance of co-operation during the presentation of the programme.
- Discuss the importance of active participation during the programme.
- Discuss voluntary participation.
- Discuss the importance of respect for each participant as well as for the presenter.
- Discuss the importance of being allowed to voice their opinion without the fear of being judged.
- Discuss the importance of fun and enjoyment while learning.

Structure and general guidelines

- Ensure that ice-breakers are age appropriate and experienced as enjoyable. An ice-breaker that is exciting and linked to the topic will prepare the participants and will make them look forward to the activity for the day.
- Always start a session in a positive way, especially when working with bullies or children who are used to being surrounded by negativism and being told what they should not do or what they cannot do.
- Always end the session on a high note and make them feel excited about the next session.
- Always bear in mind that older children might be more reserved than the younger children who might be more willing to actively participate in the discussions.
- Never force a child to do something, encourage them but if they pull away do not force them.

Intrapersonal activities

Self-awareness, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness and self-actualisation

- Shifting the focus away from what people think or say about the child and placing the focus on them and how special they are and helping them to find the things they think they are good at and not what other people think they should be good at.
- Helping the children to forget about the world around them and helping them to focus on who they are and what they want.
- When explaining something it is sometimes easier for a child to understand when you share personal experience.
- When you want to demonstrate a technique or explain something such as the effect that emotions can have on the body, first demonstrate how and where you can experience emotions in your body and then you can ask the group if there is anyone who would like to share an experience.

continues on next page …

Interpersonal activities

Empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationships

- Before you start with an activity which involves active participation, ask the children how they feel about doing the activity. Always let them know that they will never be forced to do something.
- Always encourage them to try something new.
- Always end the session on a high note such as sending them home with a task or something they should go and think about for the next session.
- Always start a session by giving them the opportunity to ask questions or to share their thoughts on what happened since the last session. For example, did they experience any change (positive or negative) since the last session?
- Always make them feel important.

Adaptability activities

Problem solving, reality testing and flexibility

- Provide them with choices – how would they like to start the session?
- Always be prepared that the structure of the lesson can change. Adapt to the change but ensure that the aim and objective of the lesson still be covered.
- Always ensure that you have permission to record or take pictures of the group.
- Be open to change and allow the participants to decide how they would like to end the session.

Stress management activities

Stress tolerance and impulse control

- Always ensure that the participants leave the session with adequate knowledge and understanding and provide extra examples when you notice that the participants seem confused or when it appears that they do not understand something. Never send them home assuming that they understood everything that was taught during the session.
- Involve parents especially when you are dealing with young children who may find some concepts difficult to understand. Involving parents can assist with the explaining of concepts at home.

Positive mood activities

Optimism and happiness

- Always prepare them when they are nearing the end of the programme.
- End the programme with a reward such as a certificate for participating in the programme or successfully completing the programme. Positive reinforcement or rewards can aid in children remembering some aspects learned in the programme and may help to forget about times where they did not experience a session as positive or fun.

The success of a programme thus lies in making the activities age appropriate, involving children in planning of activities, giving children choices and allowing them to voice their opinions.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Permission to conduct research at school

Dear Principle

According to the newspaper headlines, it appears that bullying remains to be a problem in our schools. I am currently enrolled to complete my PhD in Psychology at UNISA. I would like to conduct research on: *Emotional Intelligence As an Intervention Against Bullying in Primary schools in Gauteng: Efficacy of an anti-bullying intervention programme.* Research shows that enhancing a child's emotional intelligence skills can help to prevent a child from becoming a bully and help children to not fall victim of bullying. My aim is to develop an Emotional Intelligence Skills Enhancement Programme where the identified classes will participate in the research. The programme will run over 12 weeks. Each participating school will be visited once or twice a week as the participating children will be divided into two groups (7-9 years and 10-13 years). The parents of the children will be asked to complete the Parent-Child-Relationship Questionnaire, Emotional Intelligence and Parenting Style Questionnaire. All the children participating in the research will be members of the Bully Buddy Club which will be implemented by the researcher. If you require more information please feel free to phone or email me. All the information provided will be handled as strictly confidential.

Hereby I kindly request permission to conduct research at your school. Please indicate below if you grant Miss. L. Lubbe to conduct research at your school.

Yes ☐ I grant Miss. Lubbe permission to conduct research at our school

No ☐ our school will not be participating in the research project.

_____ _____

Name & Surname of Principal Signature

Appendix 2: Letter to schools

Dear Principle

According to the newspaper headlines, it appears that bullying remains to be a problem in our schools. I am currently enrolled to complete my PhD in Psychology at UNISA. I would like to conduct research on: *Emotional Intelligence As an Intervention Against Bullying in Primary schools in Gauteng: Efficacy of an anti-bullying intervention programme.* Research shows that enhancing a child's emotional intelligence skills can help to prevent a child from becoming a bully and help children to not fall victim of bullying. My aim is to develop an Emotional Intelligence Skills Enhancement Programme where the identified classes will participate in the research. The programme will run over 12 weeks. Each participating school will be visited once or twice a week as the participating children will be divided into two groups (7-9 years and 10-13 years). The parents of the children will be asked to complete the Parent-Child-Relationship Questionnaire, Emotional Intelligence and Parenting Style Questionnaire. All the children participating in the research will be members of the Bully Buddy Club which will be implemented by the researcher. If you require more information please feel free to phone or email me. All the information provided will be handled as strictly confidential.

I would appreciate if you could please complete the following questions:

1) Name of your school: _____

2) Do you feel that bullying occurs in your school? _____

3) Do you currently have an intervention programme that focus on enhancing a child's emotional intelligence? _____

4) Do you currently have a bullying intervention programme? _____

5) Would your school be willing to participate in this study? _____

6) How many learners in grade 1: _____

7) How many learners in grade 2: _____

8) How many learners in grade 3: _____

9) How many learners in grade 4: _____

10) How many learners in grade 5: _____

11) How many learners in grade 6: _____

12) How many learners in grade 7: _____

I would appreciate it if you could please identify the following:

1) Number of grade 1 classes: _____

2) Number of grade 2 classes: _____

3) Number of grade 3 classes: _____

4) Number of grade 4 classes: _____

5) Number of grade 5 classes: _____

6) Number of grade 6 classes: _____

7) Number of grade 7 classes: _____

_____ _____

Name & Surname of Principal Signature

Thank you for your time

Kind regards

Laurika

Appendix 3: Letter to School Governing Bodies – Permission to conduct research at the school

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Dear Members of the School Governing Body

According to the newspaper headlines, it appears that bullying remains to be a problem in our schools. I am currently enrolled to complete my PhD in Psychology at UNISA. I would like to conduct research on: *Emotional Intelligence as an Intervention Against Bullying in Primary schools in Gauteng: Efficacy of an anti-bullying intervention programme.* Research shows that enhancing a child's emotional intelligence skills can help to prevent a child from becoming a bully and help children to not fall victim of bullying. My aim is to develop an Emotional Intelligence Skills Enhancement Programme where the identified classes will participate in the research. The programme will run over 12 weeks. Each participating school will be visited once or twice a week as the participating children will be divided into two groups (7-9 years and 10-13 years). The parents of the children will be asked to complete the Parent-Child-Relationship Questionnaire, Emotional Intelligence and Parenting Style Questionnaire. All the children participating in the research will be members of the Bully Buddy Club which will be implemented by the researcher. If you require more information please feel free to phone or email me. All the information provided will be handled as strictly confidential.

Hereby I kindly request permission to conduct research at your school. Please indicate below if you grant Miss. L. Lubbe to conduct research at your school.

Yes ☐ I grant Miss. Lubbe permission to conduct research at our school

No ☐ our school will not be participating in the research project.

_____ _____

Name & Surname of Head of SGB Signature

Appendix 4: Parent Information Letter

Emotional Intelligence as intervention against bullying in Primary schools in Gauteng: Efficacy of an anti-bullying intervention programme.

Dear Parent,

My name is Laurika Lubbe. I am a Counselling Psychologist and currently enrolled at the University of South Africa to complete my doctoral studies.

The aim of the research is to assess the emotional intelligence of primary school children and their parents and to develop an emotional skills enhancement anti-bullying intervention programme. The identity of you and your child will remain confidential. You and your child with either receive the same number or colour. As the parent you will be invited on a Saturday morning to complete the following questionnaires at the school: Demographic Questionnaire, Emotional Quotient Inventory, Parent-Child-Relationship Questionnaire and the Parenting Style Questionnaire. I would like to decrease the bullying behaviour that occurs in primary schools and therefore I would like to include parents and children in my study. Research indicated that emotional intelligence can help decrease bullying behaviour amongst children. If you would like the results of your psychometric assessments I will gladly provide you with a report. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me, either via email or on the telephone number provided (email: laurika.lubbe.8@gmail.com or 0829624973)

Appendix 5: Information Letter for Child Participants

Emotional Intelligence as intervention against bullying in Primary schools in Gauteng: Efficacy of an anti-bullying intervention programme.

Dear Participant,

My name is Laurika Lubbe. I am a Counselling Psychologist and currently enrolled at the University of South Africa to complete my doctoral studies. I am writing this letter not only to inform you about the research study, but also to invite you to take part in the study.

The aim of my study is to establish a Bully Buddy club at your school where children learn how to understand themselves and their emotions and how to understand other children and their emotions. With the programme you will participate in, I want to improve your emotional intelligence skills which will help you and your friends to understand yourself and them better.Some children do not know how to deal with their own emotions and then they bully other children because they do not understand other children's emotions either. With this programme I want to help children so that children don't have to bully other children anymore. You are first going to answer some questions on the questionnaires I will hand out to you.

There is no right or wrong answer to any of the questions so you do not have to be scared when you answer them. The completion of the questionnaires will take approximately 15 to 20 minutes. If you agree to take part in the study, I will come to your school and you and some of the other children who also indicated that they would like to be part of the Bully Buddy Club will sit together in a classroom and answer the questions. No one will see your answers as it will only be viewed by me. On your questionnaire there will either be a colour or a number and this will make it easier for you as you don't have to write your name on the paper. The results will be analysed at group level only and the individual results will not be generated. If you would like the results of the tests you have completed I will gladly give it to you in the form of a report. If you have any questions that you would like to ask me, you can call me on my phone or send an email, or you can ask your parents to phone me and I will call into you to answer your questions (email: laurika.lubbe.8@gmail.com or 0829624973)

Appendix 6: Parental Consent – Permission to approach their child

Emotional Intelligence as intervention against bullying in Primary schools in Gauteng: Efficacy of an anti-bullying intervention programme.

Permission to approach your child to participate in the study:

I _____ hereby declare that I have also received clear explanations and reasons for the need to involve children in the research. Having received detailed information about the research from the researcher, I am now making a fully informed decision to allow my child _____ to participate in the research, if he or she is willing to participate.

Name and Surname of father and mother: _____

Signed: _____ Date: _____

Witness: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 7: Parental Consent – Permission for the child to participate

Emotional Intelligence as intervention against bullying in Primary schools in Gauteng: Efficacy of an anti-bullying intervention programme.

Consent form for parents

I _____ have read the information sheet provided by the researcher about the research. I hereby declare that I have also received clear explanations about the above-mentioned research study and I am now making a fully informed decision to allow my child to participate in this study.

In agreeing to my child participating in the research, I understand that all of the information provided by my child will remain strictly confidential and my child's anonymity will be preserved at all times.

Should I no longer wish for my child to participate in the research study, it is entirely my right to withdraw him/her from the study at any stage and there will be no consequences involved.

Name and Surname of father and mother: _____

Signed by: _____ Date: _____

Witness: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 8: Assent form for older children (Ages 10 to 13 years old)

Emotional Intelligence as intervention against bullying in Primary schools in Gauteng: Efficacy of an anti-bullying intervention programme.

This aim of doing this research has been explained to me. The researcher has answered all of the questions I had and I understand what will happen during the study. I would like to take part in the research study.

I _____ have read the information sheet that the researcher has given to me, which explained what the study is about.

If I agree to participate in the research study, I know that the information I provide to the researcher will not be disclosed to anybody else and my name will not be written down anywhere. In this way, nobody will know what information I gave the researcher.

If I decide to stop participating in the research study, it will be okay and nobody will be angry with me.

My name: _____ My signature: _____

Age: _____ Date: _____

Witness: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 9: Assent form for younger children (Ages 7 to 9 years old)

Emotional Intelligence as intervention against bullying in Primary schools in Gauteng: Efficacy of an anti-bullying intervention programme.

My name is Laurika Lubbe and I need your help please!

I am doing a project for my university on how to help children not to bully other children. You are going to answer some questions for me on papers which I will give you. You do not have to be afraid because there is no right or wrong answer and no one is going to see your answers except me. If you want to be part of the study, then you are going to become a member of the Bully Buddy Club where you will receive a badge that you can wear in class and during break.

By being part of the Bully Buddy Club you will learn how to understand your own emotions and those of your friends. We are going to play games and complete activity sheets which will help you to understand your own emotions and those of your friends. There are some children who do not know how to deal with their own emotions and then they bully other children. By being part of the club you will be helping to decrease the bullying behaviour in the school.

If you would like to help me all you have to do is to write your name, age and date on the lines below.

Name: _____ Age: _____

Date: _____

Appendix 10: Parent consent to participate in research

Parental Consent – Parent's permission to participate in research

Emotional Intelligence as intervention against bullying in Primary schools in Gauteng: Efficacy of an anti-bullying intervention programme.

Consent form for parents

I _____ have read the information sheet provided by the researcher about the research. I hereby declare that I have also received clear explanations about the above-mentioned research study and I am now making a fully informed decision to participate in this study.

In agreeing to participate in the research, I understand that all of the information provided by me will remain strictly confidential and my anonymity will be preserved at all times. Should I no longer wish to participate in the research study, it is entirely my right to withdraw from the study at any stage and there will be no consequences involved.

Signed by: _____ Date: _____

Witness: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 11: Teacher information and consent to participate in research

Emotional Intelligence as intervention against bullying in Primary schools in Gauteng: Efficacy of an anti-bullying intervention programme.

Dear teacher

My name is Laurika Lubbe. I am a Counselling Psychologist and currently enrolled at the University of South Africa to complete my doctoral studies. I am writing this letter not only to inform you about the research study, but also to invite you to take part in the study.

The aim of my study is to help children (especially bullies) to understand themselves and others better. I would like to enhance children's emotional intelligence skills by means of an emotional intelligence enhancement programme which will be presented at your school. As the teacher of the class who will participate in the research I am going to need your assistance as expert in working with children. I would like you to complete evaluation forms on a weekly basis. I would appreciate it if you can form part of the research process.

Consent form for teachers

I _____ have read the information sheet provided by the researcher about the research. I hereby declare that I have also received clear explanations about the above-mentioned research study and I am now making a fully informed decision to participate in this study.

In agreeing to participate in the research, I understand that all of the information provided by me will remain strictly confidential and my anonymity will be preserved at all times. Should I no longer wish to participate in the research study, it is entirely my right to withdraw from the study at any stage and there will be no consequences involved.

Signed by: _____ Date: _____

Witness: _____ Date: _____

Appendix 12: Teacher confidentiality form

Hereby I (name and surname) _____ from (name of school) _____ teacher of (grade) _____ promise that I will not act in such a manner that will lead to the identification of any child who forms part of the research. I also promise not share any information regarding the child and the research with any of my colleagues during or after the research process. I understand that if I do share any information I will take full responsibility for the actions that will be taken against me.

_____

Signature

Appendix 13: Protocol for the disclosure of sensitive information

Nine steps to be followed should a child disclose sensitive information during the data collection process:

- In the event of a child disclosing information of a sensitive nature to the researcher, the researcher will remove the child from the environment and speak to the child privately in a separate room.
- Reassurance will be given to the child that they will not be punished in any way for the information that they have disclosed and comfort measures will be implemented to allay any anxiety that the child may have regarding care.
- The researcher will inform the child that the information that they have disclosed must be communicated with parents or other professionals if deemed necessary.
- Although all the participants will be told that the information they provide will be treated confidentially, if a child discloses information that raises concern for the researcher, at all times the safety and well-being of the child must take priority and appropriate action must be taken.
- Any reasonable suspicion of abuse (physical, emotional, neglect, sexual) must elicit a response from the care-giver.
- The child will be reunited with teacher or parents.
- The researcher will inform the parents about the information that the child has disclosed during the data collection process and all events leading up to disclosure.
- Based on the information disclosed by the child, the researcher will in turn act appropriately in accordance with local guidelines for dealing with issues such as this.
- Reassurance will also be given to the child and the family that the termination of the data collection process will have no consequences.

Appendix 14: Self-developed Demographic Questionnaire

Demographic Questionnaire

1. Gender of child: Male ☐ Female ☐

2. Age of Mother: _____

2.1 Age of Father: _____

2.2 Age of Child: _____

3. Place of birth: Urban ☐ Rural ☐

4. Race or Ethnicity of mother: Black ☐ White ☐ Coloured ☐ Indian ☐ Asian ☐

4.1 Race or Ethnicity of father: Black ☐ White ☐ Coloured ☐ Indian ☐ Asian ☐

5. Marital Status of parents: Married ☐ Divorced ☐ Widowed ☐ Single ☐

6. Level of Education (Father): No schooling ☐ Grade 1-7 ☐ Grade 8-12 ☐ Certificate ☐ Diploma ☐ Degree ☐ Post-Graduate Degree ☐

7. Level of Education (Mother): No schooling ☐ Grade 1-7 ☐ Grade 8-12 ☐ Certificate ☐ Diploma ☐ Degree ☐ Post-Graduate Degree ☐

8. Employment (Father): Self-employed ☐ Unemployed ☐ Employed ☐

9. Employment (Mother): Self-employed ☐ Unemployed ☐ Employed ☐

10. Do you think your child is a bully? Yes ☐ No ☐

11. As a child were you as father ever involved in bullying behaviour as the bully or the victim?

Yes No ☐ ☐

12. As child were you as mother ever involved in bullying behaviour as the bully or the victim?

Yes No ☐ ☐

13. As a child were you (father) ever expelled from school? Yes ☐ No ☐

14. As child were you (mother) ever expelled from school? Yes ☐ No ☐

15. How would you describe your parenting style?

- Authoritarian (Strict, demanding and responsive) ☐
- Authoritative (Supportive and understanding) ☐
- Permissive (Responsive but demanding) ☐
- Neglectful (No effective communication) ☐

16. Does your child have a cell phone? Yes ☐ No ☐

17. Does your child have access to the internet? Yes ☐ No ☐

Appendix 15: Ethical clearance from UNISA

UNISA university of south africa
Department of Psychology

Ethical Clearance for M/D students: Research on human participants

The Ethics Committee of the Department of Psychology at Unisa have evaluated this research proposal for a Higher Degree in Psychology in light of appropriate ethical requirements, with special reference to the requirements of the Code of Conduct for Psychologists of the HPCSA.

Student Name: L. Lubbe **Student no.** 32981856

Supervisor/promoter: Prof R. van Eeden **Affiliation:** Department of Psychology, Unisa
Co-promoter: Dr P. van der Merwe **Affiliation:** Department of Psychology, Unisa

Title of project:

Doctoral thesis (Psychology):

Emotional Intelligence as Intervention Against Bullying in Primary Schools in Gauteng: Efficacy of an Anti-Bullying Intervention Programme.

Result: Ethical clearance is granted.

The application was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Department of Psychology at Unisa on the understanding that all ethical requirements regarding informed consent, the right to withdraw from the study, the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the information will be met to the satisfaction of the supervisor.
Further conditions relating to this ethical clearance are that:

- Permission be obtained from the governing bodies or principals of the schools involved to conduct the research, and written permission from all the parents/guardians of the children participating in the study;
- The process of identifying the 'bullies' will be carried out in a responsible and circumspect manner. Furthermore, as explained in the proposal, using only peer and teacher nomination forms will be used for this identification, and this information will be kept confidential;

Appendix 16: Ethical clearance from GDE

GAUTENG PROVINCE
Department: Education
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

For administrative use:
Reference no: M2017/337

GDE RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER

Date:	19 January 2017
Validity of Research Approval:	06 February 2017 – 29 September 2017
Name of Researcher:	Lubbe L
Address of Researcher:	15 Klepersol Street
	Northvilla
	Benoni
Telephone Number:	011 4251413 082 962 4973
Email address:	laurika.lubbe.8@gmail.com
Research Topic:	Emotional Intelligence as Intervention Against Bullying in Primary Schools in Gauteng: Efficacy of an Anti-Bullying Intervention Programme.
Number and type of schools:	Ten Primary Schools
District/s/HO	Ekurhuleni North and Gauteng North

Re: Approval In Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

07/02/2017

1

Making education a societal priority

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